The Nation.

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The Week.

It being "impossible," Mr. Roosevelt said on November 15, "for the President of the United States to enter into a personal discussion" with Mr. Henry M. Whitney of Boston, he proceeded to do so in his usual vigorous style. It is not of supreme importance whether the President did or did not say, with or without that "context" which he thinks so vital, that he favored Canadian reciprocity and believed in "Continental free trade." We imagine that his present irritation on that subject is due to complaints and appeals from the beleaguered Lodge. Much more significant than this personal controversy is the letter which Governor-elect Guild wrote to the President three days after the election. In it he expressed the belief that he and his party in Massachusetts would have been "overwhelmingly defeated" if in their platform and campaign they had not favored "immediate tariff revision." He added that both parties in Massachusetts desire it; that "all admit" that certain duties are no longer needed, while the tax on hides "is anathema"; and that it is the "urgent desire" of the people of the State that the President should recommend instant tariff reform in his message. Mr. Roosevelt's consent to the publication of the Guild letter shows that he does not consider its sentiments treasonable. His chance is now certainly splendid to dig up that buried tariff message which he was going to send to Congress a year ago, but did not, for reasons which Speaker Cannon could doubtless state.

Mr. H. S. Frye, president of the New England Tobacco Growers' Association, has confounded the standpatters by coming out for a reduction in the tariff on Philippine sugar and tobacco to 25 per cent. of the Dingley rate, and the removal of the tariff tax on all other articles. He acknowledges his apparent heresy, saying: "I know the popular thing to do, and the thing every representative of every protected interest is expected to do, is to get up on one's hind legs and howl calamity." But, strange as it may appear to the Pennsylvania school of protectionists, Mr. Frye urges this reduction in the duty on tobacco on the ground that it will benefit the Connecticut tobacco growers. He finds that there is actually a demand in the islands for New England-grown wrappers, and that the tariff stands in the way of a considerable export business. What happened when the bars were let down in the case of Porto Rico—the increase of the export tobacco trade—Mr. Frye is sure will happen when the barrier is lowered for the Philippines. All this, of course, only bears out the contention of Secretary Taft and men like Representative Hill of Connecticut, who came back from the islands last summer with a new conception of the mutual interests of the Filipinos and the New England tobacco-growers.

"The Tariff as Seen from the Inside" would be the proper heading for the interview with Speaker Cannon which the *Tribune* printed on Friday. Mr. Cannon stands as pat as ever. He professes not to know what 386 men may do about the tariff. He adds, however:

> "If some fellow did introduce a tariff bill, and it was argued and argued, and at the end of twelve months its advocates could gather together enough votes to pass it, the country being held up by the tail in the meantime, I think you'd find that the new law would have just as many outrageous things in it as are found in the Dingley tariff act."

This statement is well within the truth—that is, if a new tariff bill should be framed, as the McKinley and the Dingley bills were, by the "friends of protection." The object of these loving friends is not to reduce the tariff and lighten the burdens of the consumer. That is the last thing they think of. The problem for them, as experience has repeatedly proved, is to draft a measure which shall put the largest possible amount of money into the pockets of those who have most stoutly upheld the system—that is, by liberal campaign contributions. The sign over the door of the treasurer of the Republican National Committee should read: "Drop $10,000 in the Slot and Get a Tariff Favor." So long as this principle is in operation, so long as the consumer is the negligible factor, each new law will be just as outrageous as that which it supersedes.

Elated, and very naturally, by his success in saving nearly a million dollars a year in the printing of department reports, by his injunction of brevity upon his Cabinet, President Roosevelt turns his attention to the subject of official correspondence. It is nearly as bad to be verbose in a letter as in a report. Perhaps the ideal outcome would be to bring the Government's epistolary output back to the proportions of those often-photographed notes which "A. Lincoln" used to scribble on the backs of cards. Every now and then some Washington correspondent performs a valuable service by recounting the familiar story of the routine through which a high public officer must go if he wishes, for instance, to borrow a book from another bureau. "Red tape" is a relative term. There is even something to be said against the impulsive comment that the official should be allowed to put on his hat and go for the book himself without any letter-writing or initialling of papers. But there cannot be two opinions about the bureaucratic tendency which has been gradually turning Washington into one vast letter-file. If the Keep Commission, at the President's behest, can bring in common-sense methods, both will surely deserve monuments.

President Roosevelt appears to have been a bit staggered by the protest of railway employees on November 14 against his proposals for railway-rate legislation. The representatives of the five great labor organizations connected with railroads—engineers, firemen, conductors, switchmen, and trainmen—expressed the fear that reduction of rates would mean the reduction of their wages. In reply, Mr. Roosevelt said that he was only striving after "perfectly fair treatment" for all concerned, and that his plan of control did not mean necessarily a reduction in rates. Then, we ask, what is all the pother about? Why was there so much fuss about the "maximum" and "minimum" rates which the Esch-Townsend bill was to empower a Government commission to fix? Why the new plan to make the railways submit to their losses, under a lowered rate, with right of appeal and reversal if they could show their original rate to have been "reasonable"? The "fair treatment" at which the President aims must refer to secret rebates, local discriminations, the abuses of private-car lines, etc. But they are not to be met by Government rate-making; and if the country is given to understand that the latter does not mean cheaper freights, it will lose interest in the plan. Mr. Roosevelt's statement betrays, in fact, a tendency to waver which goes far to justify Senator Long of Kansas in refusing to promise the Commercial Club of Wichita to "get right" with the President. Mr. Long said that the President had already taken contradictory positions, and that there was no telling what he would recommend to Congress.

The Interstate Commerce Commission was overruled by Judge Bethea in the United States Circuit Court at Chicago on Monday. After a presumably careful examination into the facts of the case, the Commission had directed the lowering of railroad rates on live stock between the Missouri River and Chicago to a point where they would con-

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form to the rates on dressed beef. But Judge Bethea, in brief, found that the Commission was entirely mistaken as to its facts, and also as to its legal powers, and gave his decision for the railroads, while declining to grant the application of the Commission for an injunction to force the railroads to lower their rates. The fact that the Commission has been overruled will not surprise Mr. Roosevelt, for in no less than *ninety-three per cent.* of the cases appealed to the courts from the Commission, the Commission has been upset. But he may well pause in his determination to make the Commission the final arbiter in the matter of railroad rates. Not even the promise of the appointment of "only good men" to a reorganized Commission should conceal the danger. Mr. Roosevelt might appoint only men of the calibre of Mr. Taft; but what of his successors? In this connection it is interesting to note that Mr. Roosevelt appointed Judge Bethea to the Circuit Court as a reward for his services as a prosecutor of Trusts. Yet even he is compelled by law and facts to appear, in his first decision of importance to the public, to side with the corporations attacked by the Commission.

We are expected to see a great moral significance in the attempt of Platt and his crowd to wrest the Republican machine of this city and State away from Odell and his crowd. The war between the factions is declared. Even the President is said to be drawn into it—and what lovely associates are assigned to him! He is to go into the glorious struggle alongside Platt and Black and Barnes and Ward and Aldridge and Dunn and Quigg. The noble array on the other side includes Odell and Halpin and Lauterbach and Littauer, along with many underlings and dependents whose names signify nothing—except a mighty appetite. And the Republican party of the Empire State is expected to stand by and wait patiently to see which set of vultures shall establish the right to make carrion of it! Platt may succeed in glutting his revenge upon Odell; the smaller schemers who are so cynically using the "prestige of our former beloved leader" to get their hands upon patronage and plunder, may be able to break Odell's grip upon the machine; but that will simply mean that the last state of the organization is worse than the first.

It is time for a genuine stirring of new life in the Republican party of this State. Why should all its young and ambitious members be content to line up, year after year, first under one boss and then under another, giving the State nothing but a choice of evils, or, rather, evils among which there is absolutely no choice. Critical days confront the party. Legislation of the highest importance must be attacked at once. A Governor is to be chosen next year. Sooner than any one can tell, two live men will have to be elected to the United States Senate, to take the places of two who are dead without knowing it. Yet with all these vital matters pressing upon it, the Republican party is asked to give its time and energy for a year or more to a wretched squabble between embittered rivals for the post of chief ladler-out of the spoils!

Secretary Taft's comment on the Ohio election is of the kind that can hardly be too often or too emphatically repeated. "The result in Cincinnati," he says, "is a long step toward better municipal government and better local party politics, but the victory will not be completed for several years. A machine intrenched in power as is the Ohio machine can only be made to give up through the earnest attention and work of young men entering politics with the enthusiastic and unselfish desire to make it better." He echoes here the thought of the disappointed candidate for Governor, Mr. Herrick, who complained that it was largely blind wrath and desire for punishment that moved the voters to the State's political overturn. As we said at the time, better a vindictive assault on the bosses than no assault at all. But the retirement of one man or a dozen men is no assurance against the return of gang-rule. Cox has retired, but so did Croker and a hundred other bosses of past years in our cities and States. The late peaceful revolution at the polls was remarkable in its wide extent, not in its kind. But Ohio, or any other State that actually makes it impossible for a new machine to take the place of the old, will have won unique honor.

The news that voters are being paid $3 apiece for their ballots in Spain is considered important enough to cable to this country. But here an item to this effect would attract about as much attention as a statement that some "prominent citizen" had stubbed his toe. For instance, the Wickford, R. I., *Standard* remarks placidly of the late State election: "There was not much money in circulation. Of course, the old stand-by floaters had to have their fee, but that was probably the extent of the purchasing." Just so might a newspaper report the price of hogs and cows; the only difference is that this market report relates to the buying and selling of votes. In Binghamton, N. Y., the quotations were very low. State Senator Harvey D. Hinman got Elmer G. Sisson to vote in return for one dollar. Sisson's vote was challenged by Democrats who saw the payment made by Hinman. The high-minded Republican Binghamton newspapers, the *Press* and the *Evening News*, naturally belittle the affair. "It was," one explains, "a sensation with little foundation"—this apparently because Sisson got only one dollar. Mr. Hinman himself explains that he in no way advised Sisson how to vote, but merely reimbursed him for his car-fare and loss of work-time—a purely philanthropic action. Yet supersensitive souls find fault with this little business arrangement.

Mayor Dunne of Chicago seemingly has as many ways of attaining municipal ownership as Cyrano de Bergerac had of reaching the moon. His "contract plan" having been definitely rejected by the Council, he comes up now with three alternative schemes for "immediate" municipal ownership. One of these is a modification of his former "city plan," under which the city would proceed to build parallel and competing lines on streets not occupied by the private companies. The second contemplates the condemnation of the companies' property, and the third, an agreement by arbitration on a price to be paid for the lines. None of these is actually new. In fact, there are not many conceivable solutions of the traction question that have not been aired during the years of discussion in Chicago. It must always be remembered in connection with the everlasting interchange of views between the municipal Executive and Legislature, that Chicago's Council is very different from our Board of Aldermen. The weeding-out process of years and the regular reëlection of desirable members have made it an assembly in whose honesty, ability, and understanding of the traction question the people of Chicago have exceptional confidence. It is no longer true, as it was when Carter H. Harrison took office, that to be at loggerheads with the Council was presumptive evidence of a Mayor's own wisdom and integrity.

A visitor from Mars, newly landed in New York, would write home that in this topsy-turvey land the one essential to worldly success is total lack of the faculty known as memory. The most eminent financiers and statesmen of the commercial capital of this continent, he would remark, have recently been giving testimony under oath. While each displays markedly individual traits of speech and taste in dress, they are alike in their absolute inability to remember. A brisk young man named Frank B. Jordan, son of a former comptroller of the Equitable Life Assurance Society, had forgotten everything so completely that, were he a resident of Mars, he would belong in an asylum for imbeciles. A United States Senator, former president

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of a great railway, and still member of many important directorates, has apparently risen to his present height of glory because, in the course of a few weeks or months, all names, faces, letters, sums voted for various purposes, policies of action, and reasons of state melt and swim in a hopeless deliquium. A former Governor of the Empire State, leader of the dominant political party, a second man who is a brilliant financier, master of one of the most extensive railway systems in the world, and a third, a young graduate of the oldest and most famous university in America, a patron of art and literature, whose services to an insurance company and certain allied corporations were reckoned to be worth $127,500 a year—these three gave testimony on the same point, and no two of them were able to agree. Presidents of insurance companies with salaries ranging from $100,000 to $150,000 annually had seemingly lost track of all they ever knew about the details of their business—especially the work of their legislative agents. In brief, the visitor would warn his friends who contemplated coming here to live that they must drink of nepenthe.

The publishing of frequent reports by the Mutual Life investigating committee seems to us altogether wise. The investigation may be prolonged; a very considerable time must certainly elapse before the committee can formulate its broader opinions on the present theory and practice of insurance. But in the meantime the Mutual's own situation is one in which delay in the introduction of needed reforms would be most unfortunate. The budget of recommendations reported by the committee on Thursday is entirely to the point. Premising that "certain of the practices and methods are so palpably loose and unsound as to call for immediate attention and correction," the committee advises, first, that all matters pertaining to legislation affecting the company be handled exclusively by the law department, with full responsibility for each and every transaction. This is a stroke at the subterranean lobby system maintained by the Mutual, almost wholly through improper and irregular use of policyholders' money for that purpose. The business of the Albany "House of Mirth" the company declares must be promptly ended, and "Watcher" Fields discharged. The "Department of Supplies and Printing," whose administration of the corruption fund was the most flagrant of all the scandals brought to light, must be reorganized, the committee declares, as to both *personnel* and methods.

Finally, the "commission agency contracts," whereby the McCurdy family was progressively enriched, and of which the committee remarks that they "were originally made and have since been continued or modified" in an "apparently irregular manner," should be brought, the Truesdale committee thinks, to an immediate termination, and be replaced by employment of salaried managers. These recommendations make a good beginning, and promise thoroughness in the committee's dealings, later on, with other important aspects of the situation. Not the least striking paragraph of the report, if one reads between the lines, is the committee's answer to President McCurdy's proposal to cut down his $150,000 salary. In his letter he "considers that it has been earned," but cautiously defers to "the judgment of some policyholders that it is too large." The committee's answer, in declining to deal with the matter as requested, is, that to alter such a salary, and fix its future status, might involve "the committal of the company to the continuance of the *personnel* of the present management."

"John Krup"—if that happens to be his name—is described as "a thin, harmless-looking young chap"; no one seems to have heard his name before; his own lawyers do not, apparently, know his address. He was arrested on election day for the not-unheard-of offence of having voted on a name that did not belong to him. For all that any one can prove to the contrary, he may have voted for Ivins and Jerome. He was perhaps as obscure a citizen as all New York could show. Yet on Thursday morning an ex-Assemblyman of the State of New York, his counsel, deposited $5,000 in cold cash as his bail, and by afternoon he had disappeared. Either we have here a case of purely disinterested charity, or else this man's absence from the city was worth $5,000 to somebody. The offence occurred in Charles F. Murphy's own district; that is the only fact of record. The Krup case comes at a time when the canvass of votes is bringing to light daily an amazing series of blunders, and failures to observe the legal requirements in the tallying of votes—to put the case mildly. The average election board is stupid enough, in all conscience, but if anything in the world is calculated to produce conviction that there was a dishonest purpose behind all these discrepancies, it is just such an incident as the flight of Krup.

The rumor that the Germans were about to withdraw from their Chinese colony was, of course, promptly denied. The colonizing nation which will voluntarily give up a country to its rightful owners has yet to be discovered. Germany never pretended to a trusteeship in Kiao-chau as did the United States in Cuba. She was there for what there was in it, precisely like England in a hundred places, and the French in Tonquin. When the Boxer troubles began in China, "merely to defend her rights" Germany established a garrison in the province of Tchili beyond her treaty possessions, acting in concert with others Powers. It is this which she has now withdrawn. Whatever the motive, the Anglo-Japanese agreement as to the integrity of China undoubtedly influenced this German action. Doubtless, taking a lesson from England's book, the German Colonial Office would have liked to extend its lines on the absurd plea of military necessity. The truth is, that Kiao-chau is now about the only German colony of importance in which there is neither openly expressed dissatisfaction nor stubborn revolt. Hence the Colonial Office, far from meditating an unselfish retirement from it, is probably preparing to cite its condition as part of the defence of its actions which it will have to make when the Reichstag meets in November. For members of that body have repeatedly asked the Government why its Tchili garrison was not withdrawn, always drawing out indefinite promises of future action.

The Czar's decision to remit a portion of the arrears in payment due by the peasants for their land allotments may have a pacifying influence on the agrarian disturbances in central and southeastern Russia, yet the Socialist demands may be heightened, and the agitation in Poland may derive new impetus. It may well be doubted whether any merely palliative measure, such as an extension of the operations of the peasants' bank, or a gradual transfer of land now held by private owners or by the Crown, would satisfy the earth hunger of an ignorant peasantry. Unscrupulous agitators have inflamed passions, and a pillaging descent upon the landlords' property offers speedier relief than the manifestoes from St. Petersburg. The Government's proclamation met perhaps the most crying need of the hour. The allotments were made directly after the emancipation of the serfs. The holdings, inadequate originally, in the majority of cases, have become increasingly so with the rapid growth of the rural population, and the arrears have swollen to hundreds of millions of rubles. The vast extent of the territory involved in the present disturbances, which includes but few towns of considerable size whence troops could be dispatched to the scattered villages, affords full scope to the marauding peasants, and renders the position of the large landowners a precarious one. But, whatever the ultimate outcome, the manifesto gives evidence of the Government's intention to recede from its first position toward the rural classes.

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A MISUNDERSTOOD STATESMAN.

We extend our sincere sympathy to Benjamin B. Odell, jr. After reading his testimony before the insurance inquiry on Thursday last, it is apparent that a more misunderstood statesman never figured in American political life. Mr. Odell has apparently been pursued for years by some malign fate which has sought, by means of astounding coincidences and misleading appearances, to entangle this good man in such a way as to all but destroy his fine reputation and to dig that premature political grave beside which Thomas C. Platt already stands weeping. After studying Mr. Odell's career, it is easy to understand how innocent men are hanged on circumstantial evidence. The brain of Poe himself could not have woven a more astounding mesh of false inferences with which to bind and deliver an innocent hero to his enemies than that from which Mr. Odell is struggling to cut himself loose.

Mr. Odell is a man of a peculiarly sensitive nature, which leads him to burn with indignation whenever he beholds injustice, particularly if the public is the one to suffer. Naturally, therefore, his anger flamed forth when he discovered that, through Alexander & Green and the Mercantile Trust Company, widows and orphans were being fleeced of their all by alluring prospectuses of no less than fifteen stock-jobbing companies, conceived in infamy and brought forth for purposes of plunder. At once the Governor sends for Senator Ambler and declares that the wrong must stop. Forthwith this fellow-purist introduces a bill repealing the charter of the Fireproof Warehousing Company, under which the Mercantile Trust Company was doing its business. This was ever the Governor's impulsive way—show him a wrong and he would draft you overnight a bill to stop it. But, on sober second thought, this knight-errant recalls that he himself has a claim against the Mercantile Trust Company, quite forgotten in the heat of his ire—and this is coincidence number one. With his usual delicate feeling about what is right and proper in a public officer, Mr. Odell sees that his action would be misinterpreted — curiously enough, it already had been by some newspapers—and so he orders the remedial legislation killed. Widows and orphans and other lambs might be sheared, but their rescue should not be purchased by the staining of the Governorship. Rather than injure the good name of the State through its executive, the Governor put his indignation aside, and the Mercantile Trust wolves had leave to continue to pull down their prey.

Meanwhile, of course, as Mr. Odell held that the Governor of the Empire State should not be concerned with Shipbuilding bonds—since they had proved worthless—he once more showed his readiness to injure himself at the behest of duty by selling these bonds at a loss of $125,482.36. It is, we submit, merely coincidence number two that they should have been purchased when Mr. Odell was serving his first term as Governor. Must not a governor, like other people, invest his moneys? But the Governor, freed by the sale, felt that some punishment must be meted out to those who had betrayed him. Hence his suit against the Mercantile Trust—and more astounding coincidences. It was an accident, merely, that Mr. Odell met Mr. Hyde at the offices of Mr. Harriman, with whom the Governor never had any business relations. And there Mr. Odell informed Mr. Hyde of the stern decision he had arrived at that there should be no legislative punishment of the Trust Company. *Noblesse oblige.* Mr. Hyde knew how to respond in kind, and the check for $75,000 was promised, though not until further negotiation had taken place.

By another unhappy coincidence, long before this happy conclusion had been reached, Mr. Odell's sense of duty impelled him to advocate the election to the Senate of some other person than Senator Depew, since 1877 a director and a legal adviser of the Equitable, which owned the Mercantile Trust. There was absolutely nothing behind Mr. Odell's opposition to Mr. Depew but a worthy desire to improve the State's representation at Washington. But, as he himself afterwards admitted, he had misread the sentiment of the up-State Republicans. When he found that he had erred, and that Mr. Depew's retention was the wish of the party, he announced, in the morning newspapers of December 30, 1904, that he withdrew his all-powerful opposition, and that Mr. Depew would continue to represent the State—and the Equitable—in the Senate. Alas! his cruel fate had one more terrible blow in store for him in the shape of another, on its face, damning coincidence. *That same day, December 30, 1904,* in his morning's mail, Mr. Odell found the long-promised check for $75,000 from the Mercantile Trust Company. Mephistopheles himself could not have planned more subtly to undo virtue.

To make matters still worse, busybodies are recalling that when Mr. Odell receded from his opposition to Senator Depew, Senator Brackett charged him with saying that he must do so or break with his "dearest friend"—an unofficial explanation which, if true, would, after all, merely reflect Mr. Odell's loyalty to his friends. Nor is there reason to criticise Mr. Odell because at Mr. Harriman's request he wrote to Mr. Roosevelt urging Mr. Hyde's appointment as ambassador to France. This was not an effort on Mr. Odell's part to get back his $75,000, but was merely an example of his Christian readiness to do a good turn to one who had wronged him. It is quite absurd to insinuate that, in aiding Mr. Hyde's ambition, Mr. Odell was also aiding his "dearest friend" to get Hyde out of the country, so that the "dearest friend" might get at the Equitable's surplus. It was again only a coincidence that the letter should have been sent before Mr. Odell received his check of $75,000. Truly, as a victim of so many trying coincidences, we believe Mr. Odell to merit the sympathy, not the carping, of every charitable soul.

THE UNHOLY ALLIANCE.

Mr. Hyde's testimony last week stripped away the last shreds of the veil behind which grafting financiers and grafting politicians have been hiding. Suspicion has now become certainty. We see the whole politico-financial conspiracy revealed. It was not only great speculators who were driven wild by the sight of the vast life-insurance surpluses; politicians also went frantically to work to get their clutches upon a part of the huge accumulation. The dovetailing of greed and corruption, in finance and politics, is now clearer to the public vision than ever before. Mr. Hyde, with either the innocence of an *enfant terrible*, or the quiet resolve of a man with his back to the wall to tell the whole truth, has given the world a picture of the unscrupulous politician in alliance with the conscienceless financier, which no subsequent protests or attempts at correction can blur.

Ex-Gov. Odell, for example, is a ruined man. "Questions of veracity" between the masters of many millions are always "painful" for a society in which wealth has insensibly come to be a synonym for virtue. We shall not undertake to decide whether Mr. Hyde or Mr. Harriman committed perjury, but may remark that the chief issue between them is narrower than some seem to suppose. It is simply whether Mr. Harriman did or did not suggest to Mr. Hyde that Odell ought to have his demands satisfied because he was so powerful politically. If he did, he but made himself an echo of what Albany correspondents and the New York newspapers were saying week after week. It was "in the air" that Odell was too big a politician to be trifled with by any mere millionaire, vulnerable at many points. Whatever is to be said of the ex-Governor's explanations, it is clear as daylight that Odell has now to fight for his political life. Whether or not his exculpation be pronounced technically and legally adequate, the blow has fallen upon him, and the signal for an assault upon the stronghold of his power, the State Chairmanship, has been given both at Albany and Washington. Odell is a man of great vigor and determination, and has many political resources. He may, for a time, sustain himself; but if he does, he will sink his party in this State.

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In the field of national politics, too, we have further details of the same unholy alliance. Republican fingers burned to get at trust funds. The Equitable also paid $50,000 to elect Theodore Roosevelt. That sum—$50,000—appears to have been the "assessment" of each of the big companies by the National Committee. Treasurer Bliss, Mr. Hyde testified, got that amount at the expense of the Equitable policyholders, the plain understanding being that "many large corporations" were also contributing heavily. And yet we seem to remember a fine moral indignation at Judge Parker for asserting this to be the case a year ago. If our memory serves, a heated document issued from the White House on that subject. True, Judge Parker made specific allegations of blackmail by Mr. Cortelyou, which he could not sustain; and the President's denials were technically correct. Still, if the facts now known had been known last November, the public would have thought the case as bad as Judge Parker asserted. But all this was before Mr. Hyde went to the White House to ask for the ambassadorship to France in return for the Equitable's contribution. On this point, Mr. Hyde testimony is illuminating. To be sure, Treasurer Bliss requested money so as to save the country from the Democrats, but that did not prevent the saviours from coming in for something handsome. Both he and Mr. Frick felt that Mr. Hyde's qualifications for the Embassy at Paris rose with every $25,000 he took from the policyholders to give to the campaign fund; and they backed him—or fooled him—to the top of his bent.

This matter cannot rest here. We have had a good deal of financial housecleaning, in consequence of the insurance revelations, but the political housecleaning is yet to come. And there can be no doubt who should take charge of it. President Roosevelt is the leader of the party which has been sadly smirched. He himself stands as the presumptive beneficiary of the concealed gifts of corporations. It is beside the point to say that his great popular majority showed the shady financial soliciting of his committeemen to have been unnecessary. Neither he nor they knew it to be unnecessary. The money was asked for on the ground that it was indispensable. These huge sums were taken and used, and used for Mr. Roosevelt's benefit. That he did not, in fact, need the tainted money, does not excuse its being sought and accepted; nor does it relieve him from the duty of publicly repudiating his agents (which he has not yet done), and taking vigorous measures to prevent the repetition of such scandals as those with which they have stained the Republican party. We look to President Roosevelt's forthcoming message for plain speaking on this subject, and for recommendation of laws to prevent his party, or any party, from disgracing itself and debauching the electorate with money secretly and corruptly obtained from corporations. Only by some such step can Mr. Roosevelt both clear his own skirts and do the country a service for which the times are crying out.

THE IMPROVED BALLOT IN PRACTICE.

Thus far, in the agitation for ballot reform in this State, we have heard little but *à priori* reasoning. Such and such a form must necessarily have such and such an effect; this provision will encourage independent voting; that will serve as a guide to the illiterate; the other will eliminate the perplexing questions of legal marking. It is perfectly possible, however, to show not what would, should, could, or might be accomplished by an enlightened form of ballot, but what actually has been so accomplished.

There are at present six States whose election laws embody the essential principle of all the model ballots suggested for this State—namely, the elimination of the straight-ticket circle. Last year there were seven, but Rhode Island, thanks to her Republican organization, last winter exchanged the excellent Massachusetts ballot for one similar to our wretched New York type. One of the remaining six, Montana, has a ballot arranged on the party-column plan; that is, the names of each party's nominees from the highest to the lowest are printed in a separate column, as in this State, but there is no emblem at the top and no method by which a straight ticket may be voted at one operation. If a man desires to vote for the Republican candidates in a body, he must still put a separate mark opposite the name of each of the said Republicans. The other five have the names of candidates grouped according to offices. New York has always prided herself on an exceptionally active independent sentiment in politics and a large non-partisan vote. Let us see how the amount of independent voting here compares with that in the States which use enlightened ballots.

It is not possible in most of the States to determine accurately the extent of split ticket voting. A convenient method of approximating it, however, is to add the vote of the two great parties for every office, and find what proportion each bears to the total. Then, by comparing either party's percentage for the office on which it does best with that on which it does worst, we obtain a figure which roughly represents the net amount of ticket-splitting.

On this basis we find that in the election of 1904 in New York the difference in relative vote between the highest and lowest State officers was 1.88 per cent. In 1902 the vote for Cunneen for Attorney-General, in the Democratic column—leaving out his Prohibitionist votes—was but .47 per cent. more than that for his least successful colleague on the ticket for executive officers; of the judicial candidates there is more to be said. Following are the corresponding figures for the States with more progressive ballots:

PERCENTAGE INDEPENDENT VOTING. STATE TICKETS.

Massachusetts	1902	4.55
	1903	4.60
	1904	13.90
Rhode Island	1902	10.14
	1903	7.09
	1904	9.83
Maryland	1903	.12
Minnesota	1902	4.67
	1904	20.29
Montana	1904	6.93
Nevada	1902	9.60
	1904	.87
Oregon	1902	11.07
New York	1902	.47
	1904	1.88

This table is not merely a political curiosity. The figures are vital, because the amount of split-ticket voting is also an inverse measure of the chance which a bad or unfit candidate has of being "pulled through" by a good one. We have thought it fairest to compare here the members of the State administrative ticket. There have been many occasions in New York where there was much splitting of tickets with regard to some one office, especially if that were judicial. Thus, if Judge Gray's vote be compared with that of the Democrat who ran farthest behind the State ticket in 1902, the difference amounted to 8.67 per cent. Mr. Jerome's vote represents nearly five times as much independent voting as that. But such results have been secured even with ballots much worse than ours. Folk ran 30,000 ahead of his ticket in Missouri, where the only method of splitting was to write in his name on the Republican strip ballot. Great movements brush aside all such obstacles. The peculiar service of a really good ballot is that, by requiring the voter to scrutinize—at least to look at—every name, it brings about discriminating voting among even minor offices.

We have here classed together all the ballots lacking the straight-ticket circle, whether or not they adopt the group by offices, and we see that all except Maryland showed high percentages of independent voting in their recent elections. The converse of this must be remembered, too. Take any one of the excellent ballot forms proposed for this State, and place somewhere upon the sheet a series of spaces where a straight Republican or Democratic ticket may be voted by a single cross or stamp, and the ballot becomes at once very little better than our present one. To put such a provision in a ballot law otherwise good is an old politician's trick. It was done in Colorado, and it was done in Pennsylvania. Both these States have

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the semblance without the substance of a good ballot. New York should be warned in time against any similar attempt.

THE PANAMA MUDDLE.

With each new step forward at Panama, we seem fated to take two backwards. If anybody chose to argue that there had all along been a conspiracy to delay matters and to heap up expense and finally to disgust the American people with the whole project, we must say that he could point to a good deal of presumptive evidence. Saturday's decision by the board of consulting engineers would not be the least item of it. It is an unhappily divided report which is to be made to the President, the nice question on which side the weight of technical opinion really lies not being determinable until names and details are given. Mr. Roosevelt will have to refer the conflicting plans to Congress; and thus we shall have the greatest engineering problem of the age passed on to 476 men who know nothing about engineering. What a vista of empty debate and fresh delays opens before us!

The whole thing is, first of all, a sardonic comment on the President's way of "doing things," with his finger always on a hair-trigger. What was the excuse given for his lawless course in Panama two years ago? Why, it was that the intolerable postponements of the people's hope of an Isthmian canal must be ended, once for all. Talk not to Mr. Roosevelt of being patient with Colombia, and taking six months more to renew and perfect a treaty in an orderly way. The thing had to be done out of hand. There must not be another day's delay. If necessary to filch the canal by means of a bogus revolution and a bouffe republic, do it without hesitation—anything, rather than lose an hour's time in setting to work. Secretary Taft, in his speech on Saturday at St. Louis, deprecated the use of the phrase "make the dirt fly." But it was the President's own. To the Yale professors who questioned the legality of his action, he sent the triumphant message: "Tell them that I am going to make the dirt fly on the Isthmus." That was two years ago, and where are we now? Still, according to the majority of the consulting engineers, fifteen or twenty years away from the completion of the canal, and with an outlay before us of $250,000,000 or $300,000,000, instead of the $140,000,000 asked of Congress.

The final muddle will be highly disconcerting to the President. He looked for a unanimous report, surmounting all technical difficulties, and he finds the engineers he appointed sharply and hopelessly disagreed. In his address to them at Oyster Bay, he put "the utmost practicable speed" in the forefront. They coolly talk of a period which will leave the canal unfinished even after Mr. Roosevelt's fourth term in the Presidency—if he fulfils the predictions of his friends and is elected again in 1912 and 1916. The President urged "immediate building"; he has got something painfully like "immediate ownership" in Chicago. "Immediate" will soon be defined in the dictionaries as "American political slang meaning 'never.'"

On the technical aspects of the case, it does not become a layman to pronounce. We must await the reports and listen to the experts. It is clear, however, that some of the rumors set afloat at Washington, with the reported alignment of engineers and the alleged reasons which guided them, are to be received with much suspicion. The proceedings and the vote were actually secret, and the contradictory leakages given in the press make impossible sure knowledge of what the real status is. It is said, for example, that one reason why the sea-level plan was favored was that the lands to be flooded under the terminal-lake project would cost from $30,000,000 to $40,000,000. This must be a tremendous exaggeration. Under our treaty with Panama, there was absolutely ceded to the United States a zone of "the width of ten miles," with "any other lands and waters . . . necessary and convenient for the construction, maintenance, operation, sanitation, and protection of the said canal." Such of this property as was privately owned, is to be appraised and paid for according to its "value before the date of this convention." That is, we have in any case to take and pay for most of the land to be flooded; the Panama Railroad, which we have bought, owns a good deal of the property to be damaged; and, finally, the very best use to which the low-lying swamps and jungles can be put is to cover them with water and do a great work of sanitation at a stroke, while producing a good stretch of lake navigation for vessels in transit.

The sea-level plan undoubtedly appeals to the man in the street; what the man on the bridge of a 30,000-ton steamer may think of it, is another story. It sounds well to talk of "making a Bosphorus" at Panama, but, on examination, we find this Bosphorous is to be a canal only 150 feet wide; and the difficulties of taking a ship like the *Baltic* or the *Amerika* through it would be admitted by all navigators. Besides there has to be one lock, at Miraflores, even in the sea-level plan; and hence we seem to be going to an extra expense of at least $100,000,000, and a delay of seven or eight years, chiefly for the sake of ruling out three locks and keeping one. The situation gives fresh point to the question asked by Gen. Abbot in the *Engineering Magazine* of last February:

> "It is the unanimous opinion of all the engineers who have had practical experience in canal work, and time to study the problem thoroughly, that no sea-level project without locks, and no sea-level canal with a tidal lock, is practicable, that would be comparable in ease and safety of transit to one equipped with modern locks and planned to take advantage of all the desirable elements which the natural conditions offer. Why, then, waste an extra ten or a dozen years and untold millions of dollars, to execute a scheme which the investigations of thirty-five years have demonstrated to possess only a sentimental merit due to the imagination of M. de Lesseps!"

Plainly nothing has yet been finally decided. There will be at least two reports from the engineers. Probably both will admit the feasibility of either plan, and will look only at the preponderance of advantages differently. The President and Congress may take another view. In any case, we are as far off from an actual beginning as ever; and Mr. Roosevelt's strenuous driving has simply left us floundering in the Panama morass.

MR. WHITEHEAD AND HIS TORPEDO.

The death in England last week of Robert Whitehead, the inventor of the automobile torpedo, ends the career of a man who as fairly revolutionized naval warfare as did Ericsson with his monitor. Not that Whitehead first hit upon the idea of blowing up vessels by torpedoes. For more than a century prior to Whitehead's success, there had been recourse to stationary or movable torpedoes. During our civil war they became a large factor, the Confederates destroying with them seven Federal ironclads, thirteen wooden war vessels, and seven transports, besides damaging eight other ships more or less severely. These feats were accomplished, either by anchoring torpedoes in the channel, as at Mobile, where the *Tecumseh* was sunk, or by exploding them alongside a vessel from a small boat. This involved great risks, and not infrequently cost the lives of all the assailants, as happened in some of the attacks on the Union fleet off Charleston. When Cushing sank the Confederate ram *Albemarle*, he did so with a little launch carrying a torpedo fixed to the end of a spar.

To supplant this clumsy method, so unfavorable to the attacking forces, by a dirigible torpedo became more than ever the objective of naval inventions, as soon as the civil war demonstrated what havoc could be wrought by an underwater explosion. A Capt. Lupuis of the Austrian navy had by 1864 progressed far enough with his plan of an automobile torpedo to need the assistance of a good working mechanic. He engaged Mr. Whitehead, then manager of an engine manufacturing company at Fiume. From that time on, Mr. Whitehead de-

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voted himself to the automobile torpedo. Abandoning Capt. Lupuis's plans, he succeeded, in 1867, in perfecting the delicate machine which bears his name, with the assistance only of his son, a mere boy, and one trusted workman. As a result of that success, every navy has its fleet of torpedo boats and torpedo-boat destroyers, and almost every cruiser and battleship has its torpedo-launching tubes. In order to combat this terrible weapon, there was introduced first the torpedo netting, now discarded, and then the quick-firing guns, intended to protect a warship by an incessant hail of projectiles. Incidentally, the weight of armor on all protected vessels was greatly increased, and finally the submarine was undoubtedly hastened by the Whitehead invention. Indeed, the torpedo has probably had a greater influence than any other factor, save the comfort of men and officers, in developing the modern topheavy, high-sided fighting vessel, as the standard type of battleship, instead of the Ericsson monitor.

Whitehead's first torpedo was of steel, 14 inches in diameter, weighing 300 pounds, and carrying as its explosive 18 pounds of dynamite. Its speed was low—only six knots—and the right to manufacture was purchased by the English Government in 1871 for the trifling sum of $15,000. As now developed, the Whitehead, whose motive power is compressed air, has attained a speed of 26 knots an hour, with a range of 4,000 yards. It can be regulated to explode by impact or after a definite time; it may be set to travel at a uniform speed and depth the whole of its range, or both depth and speed may be varied. So remarkable is its mechanism that it may be made to rise to the surface or sink to the bottom after missing its mark. Its "war head" being detachable, it can be used again and again during practice with perfect safety. In length, the Whiteheads used by the United States navy vary from thirteen to eighteen feet. Whitehead himself re-designed his torpedo in 1876, 1884, and 1889. By 1885 and 1886, torpedo boats for the discharge of these weapons were constructed by Austria, Chili, China, Greece, Italy, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden, Turkey, Germany, France, and Great Britain. To-day, England alone has 142 torpedo-boat destroyers, 117 first-class torpedo boats, and 72 of the second class, in addition to 39 submarines built or building. In addition to this, automobile torpedoes are part of the coast defence of several nations.

So far as the effect of Whitehead's invention upon general naval tactics is concerned, the battle of the Sea of Japan affords the best illustration, although full and accurate reports of the part played by the Japanese torpedo boats are not yet at hand. It is believed, however, that some of the Russian vessels were directly sunk by torpedoes, and that others received the *coup de grâce* from torpedo boats after they had been wrecked and put out of action by gunfire. Moreover, the repeated Japanese torpedo attacks, even when successfully repelled, as at the beginning of the battle, kept the Russian crews in a high state of tension and excitement, just as the Spanish destroyers at Santiago made our American naval officers nervous and set them to seeing spectres and firing at phantoms. As long as torpedo boats are in the vicinity of a fleet, its crews will be nervously wrought up. For many years to come the success of the Japanese torpedo attacks at Port Arthur on February 28 and the destruction of the *Sebastopol* should be the classic examples of the damage which can be wrought by daring torpedo officers. One lesson of the late war is that torpedoes are of little value on board large ships, while the torpedo tubes on them are sources of structural weakness; but this had already been foreshadowed. It must not be forgotten, however, that floating mines were even more destructive than torpedoes. Three big battleships foundered at once on striking mines, while not one was totally destroyed by a single torpedo.

In this connection it is interesting to note that, as the United States was the last country to build torpedo boats, so its naval officers, by their own admission, have paid far less attention to this mode of warfare than have foreign navies. Not until 1900 was the first torpedo with a war charge fired by an American torpedo boat. This indifference is distinctly regrettable, because the United States is the country, above all others, which can be well defended by a torpedo flotilla. Unfortunately, our naval experts are now far more concerned with heavy offensive squadrons than with the defensive measures long urged by the founders of this Government. But if our navy were to devote itself to developing torpedoes and torpedo boats, it might demonstrate that the country needs fewer battleships than it has to-day—and this, from the point of view of many officers, would never do.

THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES AT NEW HAVEN.

NOVEMBER 18, 1905.

The meeting of the National Academy of Sciences in New Haven on November 14 and 15 was perhaps not as full as might have been expected; no quorum of the Council was present, and the number of papers by members was not large, but it may be doubted whether there ever was a meeting in which so much was brought forward that had a flavor of great scientific novelty, inasmuch as the new conception of matter which has resulted from the study of various kinds of radiation is now taking on the aspect of a greater revolution in science than did the advent of the doctrine of energy or that of natural selection, and therefore of the greatest since Newton, if not since Copernicus.

The most astounding surprise, though the matter had been rather skeptically heard of before, was the demonstration shown in photographs brought home from South Africa by Prof. W. M. Davis, of the ancient glaciation in that country. Prof. Davis reported that, as far as he heard, all the geologists at the Cape Town meeting of the British Association were fully convinced that the scratches on the rocks and other apparent vestiges of a great glacier sheet were veritably what they had seemed to South African geologists to be. Yet, in addition to some minor difficulties, such as the total absence of terminal moraines, this South African glacier sheet presents two features wholly unprecedented, one of them truly astounding. The former is that this glacier belonged to the Permian epoch, though it has hitherto been supposed that the glacial ages were all, geologically speaking, recent, and indeed have not yet quite come to an end. One is hardly prepared to say why there might not have been glaciers in Permian times; but belief is almost staggered when we learn that this sheet, starting well within the tropics, moved due south toward the Cape. We are reminded, however, that the newly discovered source of energy by radio-active decomposition of elements of high atomic weight is so tremendous that the age of the sun, and consequently the length of geological eras, must probably be far greater than those who have listened to Kelvin and the physicists have been accustomed to think. Moreover, the present view is that the planets generally have performed a half-somersault under tidal action, so as to rotate now from south to east, though at first they turned from south to west. But such a change, by dynamical necessity, must have been accompanied by a vast shifting of the axis of each planet. We are, therefore, tempted to think that there might have been a time when South Africa was warmer than the parts that are now in latitude 20° S. Somebody ought to examine into this. It illustrates, at any rate, how limitless is the field of consequences which may result from Madame Curie's discovery.

We cannot be surprised at finding that young men are the most alert in assimilating the new conceptions which old and young are now driven to admit, but the old with some not very definite reserve. Dr. B. B. Boltwood, who was introduced by Prof. H. L. Wells, exhibited a curious table showing calculated ages of certain minerals in millions of years. Here, again, we have to remember that there is no longer any solid reason for refusing to acknowledge the lengths of geological time upon which the geologists have always insisted, nor, indeed, if the affirmative reasons are sufficient, the still vaster durations demanded by the palæontologists. It now appears that helium is set free in all radio-active decomposition, and in point of fact the atomic weight of uranium exceeds that of thorium, as nearly as we know, by twice the atomic weight of helium, and exceeds the atomic weight of radium by three times the same amount,

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as if U=Th He_2=Rd He_3; and radium, which undergoes five successive radio-active decompositions, has an atomic weight exceeding that of lead by five times the atomic weight of helium, as if Rd=Pb He_5. For this and another weighty reason, Dr. Boltwood suggested last spring that the final product of the decomposition of radium is lead, an idea which has been received with favor. The other reason to which we allude is, that the proportions of lead and helium in the radio-active minerals are correct if we suppose that they were all pure thorium minerals at first; and in point of fact all do contain thorium. It is singular that the rate of each kind of radio-active decomposition remains absolutely constant at all pressures, and at temperatures ranging from that of liquid air to the highest temperatures that have been tried. Nothing seems to disturb its march. On this basis, then, Dr. Boltwood has determined, from the amounts of lead and of helium per gramme of the mineral, the length of time required to produce that amount for all the minerals for which the calculation is possible—a long list from various parts of the world; and the truth of the calculated times seems to be decidedly confirmed by the calculations turning out to give all the minerals from any one region, however different they may be in composition, pretty nearly the same age, although minerals from different regions show decidedly, and sometimes vastly, different calculated ages. Thus, the calculated ages of five minerals of Connecticut range from 92 to 98 millions of years, those of North Carolina 119 to 127 millions of years, and those of Norway from 290 to 383 millions of years.

Stupendous as these periods of time are, it does not appear that the physicist can any longer deny them, and they appear to receive some support from the southward motion of the glacier sheet of South Africa. There is, however, one point of serious doubt. Many chemical reactions proceed with extreme slowness at ordinary and lower temperatures, but, when the substances are heated to a certain point, they suddenly advance with great rapidity. Now experiments upon radio-active decomposition have never been made above 200 degress C, which is below the heat of a good baker's oven. It is, therefore, quite possible that at some higher temperature this decomposition should proceed very fast, especially if certain other conditions that might be pointed out should be realized. For the present, this consideration must throw a not inconsiderable doubt over Dr. Boltwood's calculations.

Dr. H. A. Bumstead, who was introduced by Professor Hastings, is a Yale graduate, already favorably known to the scientific world, who has been working for a year under the guidance of Prof. J. J. Thomson, the chief promoter of electrons and all these ideas, in the Cavendish Laboratory. His paper greatly impressed the physicists by its refinement and cautious attention to every source of error, although it is impossible here, in short compass and without drawings, to give any idea of its merits. When the Röntgen rays strike upon metals they liberate a quantity of energy considerably in excess of that which went to their production. This excess of energy can be due only to the radio-active decomposition of the metal, although it would be quite impossible to detect, by chemical analysis, that any change had taken place. We have been accustomed to think of the liberation of energy in combustion as very great; but that which is liberated in radio-active decomposition is millions of times greater. Dr. Bumstead has taken a pair of elements, zinc and lead, the one of low atomic weight, the other of high, and, by measuring the difference of energy resulting from the action upon them of the Röntgen rays, studied the radio-active decomposition.

Another young man, known for excellent work in collaboration with Dr. Bumstead, Dr. L. P. Wheeler, introduced by Professor Hastings, gave an excellent paper and one very convincing of the value both of Professor Hastings's leadership and of the influence of Willard Gibbs. It was a mixed mathematical and experimental research, admirable in both directions, into metallic reflexion, the polarization-effects of films and of scratches, etc.

Another paper connected with the new conception of matter, and indeed opening a rich field of suggestion concerning electrons, was by one of the leaders in physics, Professor Trowbridge. He described, and illustrated by photographs thrown upon the screen, the singular effects which he had produced in large tubes traversed by a current from a battery of twenty thousand cells of great resistance. When sparks are used, we get only instantaneous effects, but, with such a continuous source of high-tension electricity, slow alterations are observed, occupying minutes in their performance. A volume-ionization is manifest, which slowly increases, and also an ionization-lag. There is a decided unipolar discharge. With some arrangements, rotating brushes are seen, together with phenomena which decidedly resemble the shifting of the Northern lights.

A paper, perhaps indicating an unrecognized state of matter, was by the veteran Professor Brewer. He had formerly given some account of his observations upon the deposition of sediment from water in which clay had been stirred up. But, the vessels not being transportable without disturbance, it was not until the Academy came to New Haven that he could actually exhibit his results. He had several two-gallon bottles with vertical sides, containing clay and pure water, which had not been shaken for fourteen and for twenty-two years. Yet an opalescence was still visible in them, and Professor Brewer was of opinion that the clay never would completely settle. It seemed to be in a colloidal condition, in semi-chemical union with the water, and diffusing through it. But Professor Brewer informed the Academy that if a minute quantity of salt water were to be added, the water would completely clear itself in a few days. To this paper Professor Brewer appended another with specimens demonstrating that wood will never rot under the influence of pure air and moisture, even if considerably heated. If, however, the smallest particle of rotten wood be introduced into the vessel, the rot will soon spread through all the wood present.

There was one exceedingly interesting paper upon mineral chemistry by Professor Penfield, the well-known mineralogist. It seems that some time ago he received from a correspondent a package of small crystals found at Borax Lake in California, the sender remarking that they contained magnesium and sodium in the form of carbonates and chlorides. One crystal, being taken at random for analysis, was found to have the described composition, with the singular difference that, instead of chloride, it contained sulphate. Now every student of chemistry knows that a sulphate cannot replace a chloride without a complete change in crystalline form; yet all the crystals were alike. It was, therefore, at first supposed that some blunder must explain their having been described as containing chloride. However, further examination showed that of the crystals which remained after taking away that one, some seven thousand in number, not one contained any sulphate at all. After that, one other crystal was met with which contained sulphate and no chloride. The formula of the first and last was

$$2MgCO_3,\ 2Na_2CO_3;\ Na_2SO_4;$$

That of the other seven thousand was

$$2MgCO_3,\ 2NA_2CO_3;\ 2NaCl.$$

The crystals containing chloride were somewhat soluble; those containing sulphate were insoluble. Moved by a rule of old-time chemistry about the precipitation of insoluble salts, Professor Penfield imagined that, though the sulphate crystals were so rare in nature, it might be easy to crystallize them from a mixed solution of their ingredients. It proved to be far from easy, but was accomplished by five days' digestion over a *bain-marie*. There were, then, two independent phenomena to be explained: (1) the isomorphism of the sulphate and chloride compounds; and (2), the difficulty of formation of the sulphate salt, with its consequent infrequency in nature.

We now pass to the physiological and anatomical papers. The very first memoir read was an elaborate piece of work by Dr. L. B. Mendel, who was introduced by Professor Chittenden. It related to the presence of Sucrase, Maltase, and Lactase in the tissues and liquids of pigs and dogs in several embryonic stages and in the breathing animal. The details, though interesting, would require too much explanation to be given here. The differences found at different stages of development doubtless depend upon such facts as that the embryo-muscle has no work to perform, and that the embryo does not so readily get rid of substances which it can neither absorb nor transform, as the adult does.

Dr. F. E. Beach, introduced by Professor Hastings, dealt with the errors of eccentricity and collimation of the human eye. He corrected certain errors of Helmholtz, and showed how they had arisen. The axis of distinct vision is inclined some 3° or 4° from the axis of the cornea, which has not the form of a portion of a spherical surface. A person looking into an eye which looks straight into his will see three reflections—one from the cornea, and two from the two surfaces of the crystalline lens. It was to the departures from the character of an ideal optical instrument which are betrayed by the locations of these reflections that Mr. Beach's measures and calculations related.

The paper of the session was unquestionably that of Prof. Edmund B. Wilson, who attacked one of the great traditional mysteries, the problem of sex-determination, and distinctly brought it one long march nearer to elucidation. His admirably clear

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diagrams, drawings from microphotographs of wonderfully prepared specimens, showed groups of bodies known as chromosomes, which are found not only in the cells immediately concerned in fertilization, but also in the cells from which *these* cells are formed by reduction. The animals from which they were taken belonged to six different genera of bugs. Three of these genera have, in each cell of the ovarian follicles from which the egg-cells are formed, a fixed number of chromosomes. This number is even without being divisible by four (such as 14 or 22), consisting of an odd number of pairs, the chromosomes of each pair being alike in size and general appearance, while the different pairs differ more or less in these respects. In particular, two chromosomes, in every case, are vastly larger than any of the others. These two have hitherto been called the "accessory" chromosomes; but Professor Wilson, having proved the gross impropriety of this designation, renames them the "heterotropic" chromosomes. Exclusive of these two, the number of chromosomes is divisible by four (as 12 or 20). The corresponding cells in the male contain each one chromosome fewer (as 13 or 21), since they possess but one of the heterotropic kind. The ordinary chromosomes in the male correspond exactly, one to one, to those of the female. From each of the cells of which we have been speaking, is formed, in each sex, two cells of the kinds directly concerned in fertilization. In this process of division the two members of each matched pair of chromosomes separate and go, the one to one of the new cells, the other to the other. But since the cells of the male contain but one heterotropic chromosome, half of the new male cells contain one, and the other half none at all. In the act of fertilization, one male cell is absorbed in a female one, which thus comes to contain the chromosomes of both; namely, a number of ordinary chromosomes divisible by four, and either only one heterotropic chromosome, which is the characteristic of the male, or two of these, which is the characteristic of the female.

This is what happens in three of the genera examined. In the other three there is a slight difference, in that the original cells of the male, instead of containing ordinary chromosomes equal in number to those of the male together with a single chromosome which is a good deal larger, contain, beside all those, an additional chromosome which is a good deal smaller than the ordinary ones. This little chromosome acts like the mate to the big one, in that, in the division of the cell, it always goes to the opposite one of the new cells; that is, to that one of the new cells which the big one does not enter. If we leave the little chromosome out of account, the phenomena of these genera are just like those first described. Professor Wilson entertains no doubt that it is this second arrangement that is the primitive one. These facts seem to show that the determination of sex takes place at fertilization, wherein a signal addition is made to our knowledge of the subject. Still, Professor Wilson does not believe that the chromosomes are the direct determinants of sex, but rather that they are concomitants of that determination, which he thinks may be a matter of metabolism, perhaps of growth.

Mr. Agassiz, the President of the Academy, as usual wound up the session with one of his delightful papers, which are always followed without difficulty, and are always full of interest. It related to the various forms and functions assumed by the spines of sea-urchins. We have not mentioned three mathematical papers by Dr. Franz Boaz, Mr. C. S. Peirce, and Prof. Asaph Hall. Professor Hall's paper related to the calculation of the anomaly of Halley's, or any similar, comet.

The meeting was an exceptionally enjoyable one; and the New Haven members gave the Academy such a dinner as is not often offered to mere scientists.

THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION IN SOUTH AFRICA.—II.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY,
November 4, 1905.

The stay in Johannesburg was so actively employed that it was something of a relief to start away on the further journey. The main party made a brief stop at Bloemfontein, and then a long southward détour by rail to Kimberley, and there spent two days. A number of others "trekked" across the plains in slow wagons from Pretoria to Mafeking, to learn something of the open country far from the railway. A small geological party again separated from the others and went a day's journey northeastward to the Duivel's Kantoor (the Devil's Shop), a great promontory in the escarpment by which the interior highland breaks down toward the coast, affording "one of the finest views in South Africa." It was curious to find at this isolated spot a comfortable little hotel kept by a German (who shouted for joy when Penck changed from English to his own language in the second half of his after-dinner speech), and some small summer houses, refuges for those who can leave their homes on the coastal lower lands during the hot season. Returning to Johannesburg, we followed the main party around to Kimberley.

The railway journeys gave us abundant views of the broad, treeless, apparently unoccupied Veld in the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony. We had been told in Cape Town that this ride was monotonous and tiring, and so it truly might have been to travellers not interested in land forms; but, in the sympathetic company of our geological party, there was study and discussion of the plains all day long, for their origin seemed to involve curious changes in continental altitude or in climatic conditions, yet to be worked out. Moreover, on this and other railway journeys, we saw the broad country that the Boers had wrested from the natives, and that they had learned to occupy in somewhat patriarchal fashion. Each isolated homestead was usually determined by some convenient source of water supply; hence the frequent recurrence of names ending in *fontein* (spring), *spruit* (stream), *vlei* (hollow), *poort* (gap), and so on. There were small gardens near the houses, occasional small fields of "mealies" (maize) which supply a staple article of food for Boer and Kaffir, and plantations of gums (eucalyptus) and wattles (acacias) from Australia, for South Africa has been unsuccessful in the development of trees suitable to its dry climate; but the greater part of each estate was a vast uncultivated cattle range, where the herds and flocks are tended by natives, who live like serfs near their master's house. Here, dwelling in isolated and contented independence, rather indifferent to what outsiders call progress, and accustomed to a political system in which the local government of cities by their citizens had practically no place, the scattered Boers saw the rapid growth of the concentrated and aggressive mining population on the Rand, and a prolonged conflict was the natural, if not the inevitable, result. In what degree the Boer rulers were to blame for precipitating the conflict, I shall not presume to say; but it was a matter of regret to see that unsympathetic antagonism still exists between the scattered farmers and the crowded miners. We passed many battlefields and saw many traces of the war; blockhouses and rifle pits in various stages of obliteration, barbed-wire entanglements along parts of the railway line, ruined or rebuilt houses; and we heard much of the efforts made by the British to reëstablish the Boers on their farms. Vast sums of money have been spent under British control, chiefly on the reconstruction of railways and public works, but also on the repatriation of the farmers and on the restocking of their cattle ranges, the latter effort being greatly hindered by rinderpest and other diseases. Some of the money has been spent on the *Beiwohner* or hangers-on, the houseless Boers who, by misfortune, lack of thrift, or otherwise, have become a sort of "poor whites" in a country where the whites insist that they must dominate the blacks. As if in dread of the growth of such a class, great effort is made to give them means of becoming landlords.

Another problem that took our attention in the interior was the question of British immigration. Shall the stalwart young English farmer be encouraged to go out and plant his small capital and his small family in the Veld, in the hope of bettering the narrow condition that he leaves at home, and of opening up a wider future for his children? The opinion of the Association party was on the whole adverse to recommending such a venture; and this adverse judgment was supported by experts in agriculture and economics as well as by the "intelligent travellers." The mechanic may do well in the mining centres, and the man of larger means may succeed in the Veld, especially if he first learns to live at least as well as the Boers do, and does not insist on carrying out his home ideas in a dry country; but the small farmer **must** wait until irrigation is introduced on a large scale under Government control, and this has not thus far been shown to be feasible; until a kind of wheat can be developed that will be immune to rust during the summer rains, and no wheat of that kind is to be had at present; and until the many diseases of cattle and sheep can be controlled, and that happy day is not as yet. Until these difficult problems are solved, the young British farmer had better stop in the Cape Colony, near the coast, or go to Canada or New Zealand, and leave the Veld to the Boers and its vast emptiness.

It must be borne in mind that an important factor in the future of South Africa is the principle, widely proclaimed by Briton and Boer alike, that the white man must work only with his head, and leave manual labor to the natives. I do not believe that

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this is surely a long-lived necessity in the more temperate parts of the Veld, and if difficulties as to irrigation, rust, and pests can be overcome, European working farmers will become much more numerous than they are now; but, for the present, the European who labors on a farm is thought by many to lower the dignity of his race! That such a public opinion exists should be sufficient to determine many a young laboring man to try his fortune in a more democratic colony. Yet it should be recorded that the Europeans, Boers or Britons, who are successfully established on large farms on the high interior plains, would not exchange their life for any other. It was hard for us to appreciate this feeling, for we saw the Veld in its dry season, when everything was dull and gray; but it must be remembered that the Association party was made up of dwellers in cities, who spend most of their lives within the walls of lecture-rooms and laboratories, and who therefore have little knowledge of the pleasures of life in the open. The Afrikander would probably be as little willing to exchange places with us as we with him; indeed, one whom we met said that he had been "home" the year before—"home" means Great Britain and especially England to Colonials (immigrants) and to Afrikanders (descendants of immigrants) alike—but he didn't like the country there; it was too much walled in, he didn't feel free to go about as he chose; indeed, Dartmoor was the only place where he was at ease, for there the open upland with its moors and tors reminded him of the high Veld with kopjes on it!

Kimberley was a less distracting city than Johannesburg, but not less interesting. Here, as on the Rand, American managers and engineers are numerous and influential; and the American manager of the DeBeers company, in which practically all of the Kimberley diamond mines are now consolidated, is something of a king. No sectional meetings were held there, and the two days were thus kept free for visits to the huge open pits and their deeper underground extensions. We saw one that was a good quarter mile in diameter at the top, had slanting walls for 300 or 400 feet down, then vertical walls in harder rock for 1,000 feet more, so that the bottom was out of sight from the surface rim; and yet underground work went on 1,000 feet deeper still, with no sign of reaching the base of the "pipe" of the famous diamond-bearing "blue ground"! We went also to the "floors" or fields, acres in extent, where the "blue ground" is spread out to soften under the weather with some aid from steam harrows; to the pulsators on which the gravel is gently shaken as it is washed down a sloping table faced with grease, which selects and holds the diamonds, large or small, while the worthless scraps pass on; to the diamond room, where a long table (back of a good railing and with silent, square-faced guards at either end) was decorated with heaps of gems, graded as to size and value, estimated to be worth £70,000, and awaiting purchase at such prices as the company is pleased to set; to the compounds, where the Kaffir miners live, an interesting spot for the anthropologist, as many native tribes are there represented; and to the suburban park, where the European employees are well-housed. There is no Chinese question at Kimberley; African laborers are found in sufficient number, and the importation of Chinese on the Rand is rather freely condemned.

The journey northward from Kimberley soon took us into Rhodesia, a vast interior region under the control of a chartered company which was organized by the genius of Cecil Rhodes, and which greatly misses and mourns for his inspiring leadership. We made a stop at Bulawayo, far within the empty country, and from there had a most interesting excursion to the Matopos, a group of granitic domes and knobs that surmount the high plains which, here as elsewhere, occupy so large a part of inner Africa. On the summit of a huge granite mass in the midst of the remote wilderness is the tomb of Cecil Rhodes; and here, on the ground of his great ambitions and in the memory of his great benefactions, we had to regret more than ever that his haste was so great as to lead him to give any countenance to such a filibustering expedition as Jameson's raid. The attempt to occupy this part of the South African interior is a very difficult venture. Part of the country is steppe land, part is covered with an open forest of medium-sized trees; all is dry in winter and flushed with occasional rains in summer. There are about 300,000 natives south of the Zambesi, and only 12,000 whites; yet a notice posted in the railway station at Johannesburg warned Europeans not to go to Rhodesia without capital. It is not a country in which white men work; the summers are too exhaustingly hot, the midday sun was beginning to be oppressive even at the time of our visit in early spring (September). An official told us candidly enough that, inasmuch as transportation charges were very heavy, and as the export of products (apart from metals) would therefore be commercially unsuccessful, the policy of the company was to develop the needs of the natives as to clothing, household utensils, and so on; the native then would be led to work more steadily than he does now, in order to get the money with which to satisfy his growing needs, and industry and trade would thereby prosper. As a commercial policy, this is commendable; but it was well pointed out by one of our party that, as needs are cultivated and satisfied, intelligence will increase; and with increasing intelligence there will be growing ambitions; and as intelligent ambitions are aroused, the blacks, numerically in great majority, may not be content to remain subordinate to the whites, as they now are.

Thus Rhodesia has a heavy native problem in the future, as it has a heavy financial problem in the present, with its shares below par and no dividends in sight. Its more immediate hope seems to be in its mines of copper and gold, as yet hardly opened, but said to be of value, and it is largely in view of their future that the railway, part of the almost visionary "Cape to Cairo" scheme, has been built northward from Bulawayo to and beyond the Zambesi River. Luckily, coal has been found at Wankie, where it is worked for engine fuel. Even to those who have seen our Western railroads in the deserts of Utah and Arizona, the construction of a line through the Bushveld or thin-forest country is a marvel, for while our roads go through to a rich Pacific coast, the Zambesi line ends in a wild region, with nothing to fetch and nothing to carry. I can hardly imagine a more agreeable disappointment than to learn that the railway, and indeed the whole territory of the chartered company, have become financially successful, for we were most generously treated during our days at Bulawayo, at Salisbury, the capital, and at Umtali farther east, as well as during our excursion to Victoria Falls on the Zambesi, the farthest point on our inland journey. There we attended the ceremony of opening the great bridge over the gorge below the Falls, and had the pleasure of crossing it in the first passenger train that reached the northern side. We rambled about for a day and a half near the superb Falls, descended into Palm Kloof, one of the side ravines, crossed to Livingstone Island above the Falls, and wandered through the "rain forest," where the spray supports a jungle quite unlike the growth of the neighboring Bushveld. Some of the party walked up the river and saw "hippos" and crocodiles; others walked down the valley to see the curious zigzags of the gorge, and all marvelled at the ease with which we had reached a spot that was on the remotest border of exploration when Livingstone saw it half a century ago.

On turning back from the Falls, our homeward journey was begun. About half of the party returned from Bulawayo to Cape Town and then by west-coast steamer to England direct; the other half came from Bulawayo through eastern Rhodesia and descended across Portuguese East Africa to the coast of the Indian Ocean at Beira, there to embark and return by the Suez Canal and the Mediterranean. The Portuguese officials gave us a farewell lunch in the custom-house, a most artistic and charming affair, directly after which we went aboard the *Durham Castle* and steamed away on the afternoon of September 17, having been thirty-three days on land and having traversed nearly 3,000 miles by rail. The whole excursion was thoroughly planned and admirably carried out; it filled us all to overflowing with new impressions; and it gave the foreign guests in particular a view of British strength and heartiness, at home and in the colonies, that cannot be forgotten. The only untoward result likely to follow from this unrivalled opportunity is, as President Darwin pointed out in his remarks at our lunch in Umtali, that we shall make ourselves rather insufferable all through the coming winter by insisting on telling our South African experiences on all occasions, until our hearers cry, "Enough!" if not, indeed, "Too much!"

W. M. Davis.

THE RUSSIAN PEASANT.—I.

Sevastopol, October 16, 1905.

It is difficult for those who live in western Europe or in the eastern part of the United States to realize to what an extent Russia is still an agricultural nation, and to understand the significance of that fact. In Russia the large cities are few and far between, and, with the exception of Moscow, are almost all upon the extreme western or southern border of the Empire. Eight-tenths of the population is still to be found in detached villages of from 1,000 to 1,500 inhabitants, scattered over an area

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much larger than that of the United States. Any speculation upon the political future of Russia will be futile if it does not take into proper account the nature of these village organizations (or "Mirs," as they are called), and the racial characteristics of the individuals who constitute them.

The Slavic population of Russia is divided into three branches, the Great Russian, the Little Russian, and the White Russian. Of these the Great Russian is by far predominant, numbering more than 40,000,000, and occupying the whole valley of the Volga, a large part of the basin of the Don, and extending westward to the Dnieper and Dvina Rivers. Tolstoy, with whose picture in peasant costume every one is familiar, is both physically and temperamentally the typical Great Russian. With his stalwart frame, his light brown hair and beard, his mild blue or gray eye, broad face and gentle expression, and his belted blouse overhanging his trousers, the Great Russian meets you everywhere in the kingdom. Not only in his original home, but in Vladivostok, throughout Siberia and Central Asia, on the shores of the Black Sea and of the Sea of Azov, he is sure to greet you with the offer of broad shoulders or of his swift droshky for the transportation of your luggage and your person.

The Little Russian, next in importance of the Slavic population, often has dark hair and dark eyes, supposed by some to have come through a slight intermixture of Tartar blood; but in general his characteristics are similar to those of his brothers in Great Russia. He is, however, cleaner in appearance and manner of living, and his villages show signs of greater prosperity. The Cossacks of the Don and the Ural are simply the frontiersmen of Russia, with such modifications as border life produces in all classes of people. They possess a military organization, which is extremely democratic, except in the appointment of its higher officers. Naturally they have come to be the chief dependence of the Government in preserving order throughout the Empire, their relation to the ordinary army of conscripts being something like that of our regular army to the State militia. We have much the same difficulty in the United States in suppressing disorders through the militia that Russia has through the regular army. In repeated instances our militia have refused to respond for the forcible suppression of disorders fomented by their fellow-citizens. The refusal of Russian troops to fire upon a mob, and the resort to the Cossacks as we resort to the regular army, are no new things in Russia.

Nothing can be more erroneous than the impression which is conveyed by picturing the Russian as a "bear," for, really, he is a gentle creature, overflowing with sympathy, and this is the basis of his most characteristic faults. Beggars are everywhere tolerated. They line the approaches to every church, and stretch out their appealing hands from every corner. Nor are they rudely thrust aside by any. Their very numbers indicate the consideration with which they are treated. The exile, as he starts for Siberia, is universally looked upon as more unfortunate than criminal, and is the recipient of many parting gifts. In Siberia itself the free settler ever leaves some bread and water outside his door that the fugitive from justice may find refreshment in his lonely night marches. It was in obedience to this sentimentality of the people at large that capital punishment was abolished in Russia 250 years ago. Since that time even the most hardened murderers have never been sentenced to more than twenty years in prison. The few executions which take place in Russia are under the extreme enforcement of martial law.

The whole penal system of Siberia has really sprung out of the same national sentimentalism. Exile to Siberia, with a speedy release from close confinement and a chance to retrieve one's fortune in a new country, has seemed to the nation more humane than summary execution or prolonged close confinement. However mistaken the policy may have been, the impulse leading to it has been generous rather than severe, while no one could well see beforehand the incidental evils which have been connected with it. Now that the policy is to be reversed, the first requisite is the erection of a large number of new local prisons, where it is doubtful if the unfortunate class will be any better off than they have been. It is interesting to note that Prince Kropotkin, upon being confined in an up-to-date French prison, emphatically declared that the general effect of the Siberian prison was better than that of the prisons of Western Europe.

The Russian neither hurries himself nor any one else. One of the most striking characteristics observed through many months' close association with him, first and last, has been the uniform kindness with which workmen are treated by overseers. A recent trip down the Mississippi upon a river steamboat revealed scenes of hard-heartedness and cruelty on the part of the overseers who were driving negro stevedores to the utmost limit of human endurance, shocking every sentiment of humanity. The harsh and rasping tones, the terrible profanity, and the repeated blows upon the backs of the overworked negroes, contrasted in a forcible manner with the patience observed everywhere here. The Anglo-Saxon overseer is a brute compared with the Russian. These feelings of sympathy found expression in a striking scene which I once witnessed in a group of children who had come out to slide upon some newly frozen ice, at the beginning of winter. A number of the children were barefooted, but those who had shoes, instead of monopolizing them entirely to their own benefit, at intervals took them off and lent them to their less fortunate companions.

Paradoxical as it may seem, one of the greatest hindrances to progress among the Russian peasantry is the amount of liberty retained by the village commune or Mir. Admirable in many respects as this organization is, it is looked upon by the most enlightened friends of Russia as one of the main obstacles to progress in the social and political condition of the Empire. The Mir either owns or rents the land which its individual members cultivate. Annually, by universal suffrage in which the women who are widows, or whose husbands are absent, take part, elders are elected whose duty it is to see that each family has its proper proportion of the land assigned to it. But, if there is any dissatisfaction, each individual has the right to call a public meeting and make a final appeal to the whole body of voters.

This communistic system is supposed by many to be the cause of the backward state of agriculture throughout Russia. Though this may be true in part, other causes conspire to the same result. The climatic conditions are such that high cultivation, such as is found in Central and Western Europe, is out of the question. The rainfall is meagre, and extensive irrigation impossible, while the season for the growth of crops is short. The peasant, therefore, must, in general, resort to a plan of raising a crop of grain (wheat, rye, or oats) one year, and allowing the land to lie fallow two years, and even then only succeeds in raising seventeen or eighteen bushels of wheat per acre. Upon a sale of a portion of this he must depend for his ready money.

But every house has its garden well stocked with cabbages and cucumbers and other vegetables, while the house itself, built of logs and covered with thatch, is admirably adapted to the conditions of life to which the peasant has become attached. It is warm in winter and cool in summer, and provided with a large brick oven in the principal room, which well conserves the heat furnished by the scanty supply of fuel. The furniture is simple, consisting of a few benches and rough bedsteads and a table. The oven itself also often serves the purpose of affording facilities for the weekly steam bath which every Russian is careful to take. In the winter the top of the oven is a favorite sleeping-place for the aged members of the family. After driving over a level and treeless prairie for many miles without seeing a single habitation, as one is ordinarily compelled to do, it is a pleasant experience to come suddenly upon a village of such houses, snugly ensconced beside some little stream which furnishes a convenient water supply. Life in these villages is certainly much less lonely than in the scattered habitations of our own Western prairies.

The Mir, again, has the right and responsibility of dealing with infractions both of the civil and the criminal laws up to a certain degree, and is permitted, as the ancient Greek communities were, to obstracize objectionable members. More than 50 per cent. of the exiles to Siberia have been sent there by vote of the village communities in which they lived. When such a vote is taken, the unfortunate member is turned over to the general Government and put under police surveillance in Siberia. Nor is a criminal who has been sentenced by the courts permitted to return to his commune except by general permission.

This responsibility of the Mir is, however, somewhat restricted by the fact that the votes are not effective until they are unanimous. Practically, however, they are always made unanimous as soon as a clear majority has been obtained. The direct and, on the whole, satisfactory way in which these village communes attain the ends of justice is well illustrated by a recent incident related to us by a friend who witnessed it. An illegitimate child had been born under some mitigating conditions which we need not mention. The Mir was assembled to see that justice was done as far as possible to all parties. After a fair amount of discussion, the unanimous decision was that the father of the child

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should bind himself for its proper support through specified annual supplies furnished to the mother. This, of course, was to be expected. But it was followed by a vote which was as unexpected as it was salutary, namely, that whoever should hereafter make the matter a subject of gossip should be fined ten rubles (five dollars).

In other ways, also, such a pure democracy as is the Russian Mir must limit the freedom of its individual members, illustrating the too much neglected apothegm that the worst of all despotisms is that of an implacable majority. The Mir has certain common responsibilities which every individual shares. It owes to the general Government taxes and military service. This is essential to the maintenance of the unity of the Empire and to the fulfilment of all the higher aspirations of the Slavic race. Hence it comes about that the individual member of the Mir is not permitted to go and come as he likes; but, upon leaving home, he must give a pledge to his fellow-members that he will continue to bear his share of the common burdens, at least until the next census is taken. He must, therefore, secure leave of absence from them. This is the reason for that internal passport system which to outsiders seems so meddlesome and onerous, while, viewed in the light of the real equities of the case, it is perfectly fair and just, and is so considered by the mass of the Russian people. The great commercial and manufacturing centres of Russia are filled with peasants who have obtained temporary leave of absence from their Mirs for the purpose of improving their condition in these broader fields of activity. Often they continue for the rest of their lives to reside in the cities, while cheerfully paying their annual tax to the Mir. This, however, is not regarded as an imposition, but really as a payment to secure an old-age pension; for so long as they pay this tax they can, if business adversity overtakes them, return and be reinstated in all the rights of the village.

G. Frederick Wright.

Correspondence.

GRAFT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a speech delivered at Springfield, Ohio, during the recent political campaign, Gov. Folk of Missouri gave the following definition of a new word now in common use:

"The word 'graft' is of such recent origin that it is as yet undefined in the dictionaries in the sense in which it is now generally used. The boodler sells his official vote or buys official acts contrary to law. He is a grafter; but a grafter is not necessarily a boodler. Grafting may or may not be unlawful. It is either a special privilege exercised contrary to law or one that the law itself may give. Special privileges are grafts and should be hateful to all good citizens."

This is submitted by way of contribution to lexicography, emanating from the best authority.—Respectfully, M. W.

Annapolis, Md.

THE GENESIS OF GRAFT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Certain experiences of the great High School in this city, one of the most important in the country, seem to me to furnish a highly valuable biological experiment in the genesis and development of political corruption-germs. They also throw light on the question suggested by the recent insurance investigations, and raised in your columns, as to which is prior in point of time, and therefore of blame—the blackmailing legislator who devises "strikes" to be bought off, or the corporations which systematically tempt the venality of legislators to procure legislation adverse to the interests of the public or of rivals; a question which otherwise might seem to be parallel with that of the first hen and the first egg, and in some sense is so, as a much-bought public body gradually becomes a subsistent organism, drawing its vital juices from the corruption dunghill.

In brief, the furnishing of class photographs for so large a school is a very valuable plum, in immediate money or in advertising, for a photographer who obtains the contract; and each student board which, year by year, is deputed to make that contract, finds itself at once approached with considerable bribes—fifty or a hundred dollars sometimes, and other valuable considerations. I do not assert that any single contract has been so gained, not even that the offered bribes have influenced the grant; simply that business firms regularly add to the official school curriculum another, of potential "graft," supposably to fit the ungrown youth for their coming careers of "practical politics." In this case there can be no question even of divided responsibility: the children never dreamed of farming out the contract to the highest briber, or of asking any gift as a condition of awarding it; the idea of turning it into a "graft" was absolutely put into their minds initially by firms willing to generate corruption for personal profit, or, more charitably, each fearing that a less scrupulous rival would do the generating and reap the profit, so that morality would be no better off and their own gain would be sacrificed—exactly the reason advanced by the Artful Dodger why Oliver Twist should pick the pockets of unwary strangers.

It seems to me obvious that such is the fact all through the non-political branches of business life. Do school boards of any sort usually begin their selection of text-books by secretly "touching" the publishers to see which will respond most liberally? Of course not; if bribes are ever taken, the firms make the first advances. Has the advertising or other contract agent of a company or firm, who may be caught pocketing commissions, usually been the original fountain of the evil suggestion? Not once in a hundred times; a bait, in general at first made morally plausible, has been hung out which his *res angustæ* or ambition, or perhaps affection, had not strength enough to resist. I fully believe that the same is true in the beginning altogether, and even at the last to a great extent, of political venality: most officials are chosen from the decent classes, are decent men at the outset, and are gradually debauched by the moneyed interests bidding against each other for special legislation. I know quite well to what depths of shameless and brazen corruption such men or bodies can at last descend. I know corporations are given the choice sometimes perhaps of life or death, often of prosperity or great struggle, of success or failure in competition, through buying or not an official board of whom it would be as ludicrous to say that the corporation is corrupting them, as to accuse a Circassian who sells the Sultan's agent his 337th concubine of tempting the Sultan to bigamy. But I am convinced that the perpetual stream of new corruptionists poured into public life, of men at least technically honest turned into rogues in grain, is created outright by a large part at least of the very interests that wail over their completed work, and lament that they can get no public action without buying the public representatives.

This said, may I have permission to add—from knowledge a decade old, but hardly obsolete—that I believe the insurance companies to be among the least of the sinners with regard to initial legislative corruption? I say nothing of municipal affairs, where their interests are only as property holders, and where they are doubtless neither better nor worse than other large owners; I speak only of general legislation. It is almost impossible to make a law which shall add to the running profits of legitimate insurance companies, and I do not remember any such law ever made or sought, though they have been made in shoals for illegitimate ones to defraud the public—for members of "Iron Halls" and "endowment bond" societies to pick each other's pockets while a few sharper scoundrels picked those of the whole, for the freeing of the masses of rotten assessment societies from public accountability or from the obligation of carrying funds to make good the promises on which they have lured in the public, and so on. But the possibilities of legislation to *harm* not only the general business of insurance, but the direct money interests of policyholders, are infinite, and the actual measures to harass them are pretty nearly so. Valued-policy laws, raising the price of fire insurance for all in order to give each a gambler's chance to turn indemnity into a profitable speculation; laws against making suicide a ground of forfeiture, equally robbing the mass of honest, mediocre people to make the family of a coward (often a plunger at the end of his rope) immensely rich by enabling him to turn the mortality chance into a certainty against the remaining policyholders; demagogue "nigger laws," so styled, to prevent charging colored men more than white—exactly like forbidding a bank to discount a negro trader's note at a higher rate than a white man's; special sectional protective burdens laid on far-off companies, to dragoon people into patronizing those near by; thrifty securing of costly public works by loading the cost upon the insurance companies—the beautiful $3,300,000 Connecticut Capitol and grounds were paid for, every dollar, by a special insurance tax, most of it recharged against the policyholders' "dividends" in the mutual companies; "insurance departments" in many petty States, with no special insurance inter-

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ests to safeguard, operated as political plums at the expense of the companies, and endowed with the power of making or threatening constant "examinations" which are merely blackmailing raids, so understood by both parties and often bought off as such—these are only a few of the actual assaults, on the broadest scale, upon the companies as large moneyed institutions. If the companies called down these "strikes" upon themselves, they were singularly inept in warding them off. As to injurious measures threatened by regularly organized blackmailing lobbies, they swarm at every session, or used to, and I do not believe the old order has changed. In a word, the companies want no special legislation, and could not profit by it; the strikers wish it against the companies to extort ransom. Is it not clear that the latter in this case are the ones who began and begin the game of corruption, and force the companies to maintain protective lobbies?—Very truly yours,

FORREST MORGAN.

HARTFORD, CONN., November 14, 1905.

TONE IN PUBLIC OFFICIALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the spring of 1863, the banking house of Jay Cooke & Co., of Philadelphia, was made a loan agency for the national Government, receiving a commission of one-eighth per cent. on all loans made. Since the loans of the next few months aggregated over $75,000,000, the profits accruing to the house may be imagined. Jay Cooke purchased in June 300 shares of Erie Railway stock in the name of the Secretary of the Treasury, Salmon P. Chase. Within three weeks, the stock had cleared $4,200, and Mr. Cooke sent a check for this amount to Mr. Chase as profit. It was precisely such a transaction as seems to have become common in these days. But Mr. Chase returned the check to Cooke with these words: "In order to be able to render the most efficient service to our country, it is essential for me to *be* right as well as to *seem* right, and to *seem* right as well as to *be* right."

EDWIN E. SPARKS.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, November 14, 1905.

THE CASE OF PROFESSOR MITCHELL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Professor Mitchell's retirement from the theological faculty of Boston University is not by the Trustees' dismissal, as was stated in your recent editorial, but by their forced relinquishment. The University does not question his teachings or his character. On the contrary, the Trustees have done their utmost to retain him. The circumstances compelling his withdrawal are few and plain. They should be understood by all persons interested in academic freedom.

Professor Mitchell was appointed to the chair of Semitic languages in 1900 for a five-year term—the longest permissible; consequently, the question of his reappointment came before the Trustees this year. Without hesitation they reëlected him for another five-year term.

Now, by a statute of the University, an election to a theological chair, unlike all other appointments, must be confirmed by two bishops of the Methodist Episcopal Church. By a recent order of the highest governing body of this Church—the General Conference—such an election in any theological school recognized by the Church can be confirmed by the bishops only upon a majority vote. Consequently, Professor Mitchell's appointment, when submitted by the Trustees to the bishops last spring, could be confirmed not by any two of the board as contemplated in the statutes, but only by a majority.

As the requisite majority was not willing to confirm the appointment, the bishops courteously returned Professor Mitchell's name without action, together with some reasons for their unwillingness. These were conveyed in form of a report of a committee of their number, appointed to investigate certain charges against Professor Mitchell's teachings.

The Board of Trustees then renewed with urgency its request for confirmation. The bishops replied that their earlier action in returning the name was equivalent to a refusal to confirm, and that they did not consider themselves at liberty to reopen the question of Professor Mitchell's confirmation.

Under the University's statutes the Trustees, since this final action, have had no alternative. They have not dismissed Professor Mitchell. On the contrary, they have twice requested that their reëlection of him receive confirmation.

In justice to the Trustees and to the spirit of the school, the responsibility for Professor Mitchell's retirement should be placed where it belongs—with the board of bishops. Your editorial sympathy with Professor Mitchell will, I feel confident, in the light of these facts, extend also to one of his warmest friends—the University that deplores his loss.

WILLARD T. PERRIN.

BOSTON, November 15, 1905.

THE OHIO CORONER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I call your attention to the injustice which may be wrought in full conformity to the laws of the State of Ohio? On Thursday, the 2d of November, the coroner of Knox County in this State began an inquest into the death of Stuart L. Pierson, a student of Kenyon College, who was killed by a train on the night of the 28th of October. He chose to sit without a jury, as is permissible under Ohio law, and he chose, moreover, to sit behind closed doors, excluding even the lawyer who represented Kenyon College and the D. K. E. fraternity, the witnesses most concerned in the investigation. For a week the daily papers were filled with false and sensational rumors, which purported to emanate from this secret tribunal. On the 11th of November the coroner published his verdict, finding that Stuart Pierson was tied to the railroad track by person or persons unknown. No testimony was then, or has since been, filed in support of this verdict, which thus stands as the arbitrary dictum of a petty official.

Upon this unsupported assertion Kenyon College and its students have been condemned by the press throughout the country, and censure and abuse have been heaped upon a college which for a record of noble accomplishment has few equals and no superiors west of the Alleghenies. Are we living under an autocracy, that one man's word carries such weight?

Very sincerely yours,

WILLIAM F. PEIRCE,
President of Kenyon College.

GAMBIER, OHIO, November 18, 1905.

KEATS IMPROVED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The November number of *Modern Language Notes* contains a delightful illustration of philology minus imagination. It is too good to keep.

The article, or communication, in which it is to be found is entitled "A New Reading in *The Eve of St. Agnes*." The writer, who is an instructor in English in an Eastern university, ventures the opinion that, in the admired line,

"Clasp'd like a missal where swart Paynims pray,"

the true reading of the last word is not "pray," but "prey." Keats's spelling, he says, was not infallible; Keats in other places was guilty of "tripple," "plummes," "deamons," and similar errors. He might, therefore, have written "pray" when he intended "prey." Two interpretations of the line thus becoming possible, which of them shall we choose? I quote the writer's answer:

"If we are to imagine the missal as 'doubly cherished for the danger' (Leigh Hunt), the danger from marauding Paynims will surely be greater than that from Paynims who simply say their prayers. And in the romantic epics of chivalry, of which Keats had imbibed the spirit, the characteristic of the Paynims is not their piety, but precisely their preying upon Christian knight and lady."

Nothing could be more convincing. The only complaint which one can lodge against such reasoning is that it does not go far enough. For my part I am convinced that the line as Keats originally wrote it ran as follows:

"Grasp'd like a missile where swart Paynims prey."

Every schoolboy knows that *gr*, rapidly written, tends to degenerate into *cl* or something like it, through the decaudalization of the *g* and the compensatory protension of the *r*. *Missal* for *missile* is just the sort of thing we might expect of Keats. And what could be more characteristic of swart Paynims than the grasping of missiles? So there you are. "Give me an ounce of civet, good apothecary, to sweeten my imagination."

PHILOLOGUS.

Notes.

A. S. Barnes & Co. will publish immediately 'Seashore Life,' the invertebrates of the New York and adjacent coasts, by Dr. Alfred G. Mayer, with the author's illustrations drawn from the New York Aquarium and elsewhere.

A new 'Dictionary of German Quotations' is promised by Macmillan.

The correspondence between Wilhelm von Humboldt and his wife Caroline, which has all these years been guarded as a sacred family treasure, is to be published in the near future. Humboldt's great-granddaughter, Frau von Sydow, already favorably known as the author of the biography

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of Gabriele von Bülow, will edit this correspondence. A beginning will be made with the publication of the letters exchanged between the engagement and the marriage of the two writers; and these letters are of special interest because of the accounts and discussions of such prominent contemporaries as Goethe, Schiller, Charlotte von Lengenfeld, Henriette Herz, Dorothea Veit, Therese Forster, and others. The first volume is to make its appearance before Christmas. The publishers are Mittler & Sohn of Berlin.

The text of Dr. Thwaites's superb reprint of Lewis and Clark's Journals (Dodd, Mead & Co.) reaches its conclusion with volume vii., of which the main pieces are the original journals of Sergeant Charles Floyd and Joseph Whitehouse, the latter quite extended and a by no means superfluous addition to the narrative of the chiefs. It ends with the arrival on the Pacific Coast. An appendix of matter relating to the expedition, largely composed of correspondence between Jefferson and his lieutenants, will be found good reading, and much of it is now published for the first time, such as the "Inquiries relitive to the *Indians* of Louisiana," from Clark's papers—apparently a copy of Jefferson's instructions, *e. g.*: "What is the State of the pulse in both Sexes, Children, grown persons, and in old age, by feeling the Pulse Morning, Noon & Night &c.?" The Atlas now alone remains to complete the monument.

Dr. Holmes's 'One Hoss Shay,' together with "How the Old Horse Won" and "The Broomstick Train," reappears with illustrations by Howard Pyle, but redrawn in color (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The effect is quaint and pleasing, though we think the artist, like the poet, has succeeded least well with the latest narrative, that of the trolley; yet even here one or two of the vignettes are as good as any in the series.

Mr. Luther S. Livingston's 'Auction Prices of Books, 1886-1904' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) terminates with the fourth volume—Richardson to Zwingli. Its field, we may remind our readers, is English and American. An author allied with both nations, Capt. John Smith, would be called, in current slang, one of the best sellers of the day. Four sales of his 'General History of Virginia' (1624) brought $1,800 in 1879, £605 in 1886, $1,900 in 1890, and £204 in 1896. Even his quarto Map of Virginia (1612) fetched £120 in 1902. Shakspere sales require 29 pages, Thackeray 11, Scott 10, Shelley 9, Ruskin and Tennyson 8, Stevenson and Izaak Walton 7, Swinburne 5, Wordsworth 3—fair measures of each cult. The American contingent is unmarked by notable prices. Mrs. Stowe tempted no one above $46, Thoreau above $78; but Whitman's 'Leaves of Grass,' with attending autographic accidents, obtained a bid of £35. In spite of the genealogical mania, Savage's four-volume 'Genealogical Dictionary,' *fons et origo* of research, brought at most $76. Sibley's 'Harvard Biographies' in three volumes, an inexhaustible browsing-ground of delight to the antiquarian, went for $15. D. G. Rossetti's proof-sheets and some manuscript attached were valued above any of his books save one. Rousseau in English never rose above four pounds.

The eleven volumes of Stedman and Hutchinson's 'Library of American Literature' within ten years of publication were, by Mr. Livingston's exhibition, valued at $22 and $12.10, and in 1902 at $11 and $5.50. With this may be compared the fate of the National Dictionary of Biography during the past season of 1904-5, as shown in Mr. J. H. Slater's 'Book Prices Current' (London: Elliot Stock). This inestimable work in 67 to 69 volumes was procurable under the hammer at £35 to £48. The moral agrees with that pointed by Mr. Slater in his preface, apropos of the prevailing low average apart from the rare and much sought-for prizes. In other words, moderate purses stand a pretty good chance of a bargain in auction-rooms. The climax of the year was the £4,000 paid for the Mentz Psalter of 1459. Shakspere's 'Titus Andronicus' (the Shakspere reappearances were striking) stood the purchaser in £2,000. Mr. Slater has helpfully consolidated his indexes, subject, and author.

A well-printed volume of 336 pages, just to hand, contains the Records of the Town of Hanover, New Hampshire, from 1761 to 1818. It owes its existence to a vote of the town and to the labors of some of the townspeople, of whom there deserves to be mentioned Miss Laura Woolsey Lord, who has furnished a full index of persons, subjects and places. There are a few quaint entries. The election of "deeriffs" reminds one of the Provincial Law of 14 George II., which required each town to "choose two proper persons to inspect and search any house or place where deer may be killed or hid." A curious custom it was to enter in the town records "Notices" relating to horses breaking into inclosures. A dark sorrel mare that troubled Mr. Jesse Dewey was, it seems, "a natureal troter" (p. 190). In fact, most of these carelessly behaving steeds appear to have been "natural trotters." We suspect that Dartmouth College has not been without its influence in bringing about the printing of these Records; a step wisely taken, and one to be widely imitated in time, we trust.

Mr. H. Noel Williams adds to his studies of notable French dames a set of biographical essays entitled 'Queens of the French Stage' (Scribners), which cover the period from Louis XIV. to the Revolution, beginning with Armande Béjart (Molière's wife) and ending with the celebrated, and notorious, Clairon. To the histrionic distinction of La Champmeslé, Adrienne Lecouvreur, and Madame Favart, the biographer does such justice as can be gathered from contemporary criticism or rhapsody, supplying at the same time for the average reader a liberal spice of piquancy in the traditionally ample record of love adventures. One may hazard a doubt whether this element would have received like emphasis had the frail ones been English women. However, the volume is readable, and accurate in most matters save that of French quotations, in which elementary blunders are altogether too frequent. The illustrations are of unequal merit and interest.

Spain has evidently been rediscovered. The days of Ford and Borrow have returned, and the voice of the tourist is again heard in the land. Yet it would be unjust to sweep into the latter blatant class Mr. Rowland Thirlmere, with his two-volume illustrated 'Letters from Catalonia and Other Parts of Spain' (Brentano's). His prototype, rather, is the mild grace and sympathetic art of Longfellow's 'Hyperion.' It is true that he is neither so graceful nor gracious nor artistic in form, but the sympathetic personal note and the flavor of phrase are the same. He is at home, too, in Spain, has known it before, and has access to its family life. So his talk is not all of dinners and hotels and journeys, though there is more of that than need be. Originally a series of letters home, the book would be indefinitely improved by reduction to one-half its length, and reconstruction in simpler, less multitudinous form. There are many telling situations which Longfellow or Sterne would gladly have handled, but they need to be cleared from the mass of a traveller's jottage and given air and space. Yet those philosophic readers who will be content to let the pages pass and the writer talk of this and that, will have their reward. The spell of Spain will be on them; an old land of memories and sorrows, but with a people still of blood and brain. For them, through and over all the petty wealth of English names dragged in and the shower of allusions of the day, the ghost of the past and the spirit of the present and the future will rise, and one will understand why the writer loved Spain and lingered over her thus garrulously. The illustrations, too, are of the same type—very numerous, by many hands, and only occasionally rising into excellence. But the whole book undoubtedly has character and reality, a record of such sensations, impressions and ideas as lead to essential truth.

Among autobiographers and diarists the Emperor Baber holds an honorable, probably as a ruler, a unique place. And his work has had the fate of most such semi-confidential productions in an uncertain existence and slow publication. Written originally in Turki, or Chaghatay-Turkish, it was made more broadly accessible in Persian, but from an incomplete manuscript. The first version into a Western language was begun by the too early lost John Leyden—of the 'Border Minstrelsy' and Scott's eloquent lament—one of the pioneers of Indian studies in the first decade of last century. Others more perfect followed slowly, with a print of the original text in 1857. Now Mrs. A. S. Beveridge publishes as the first volume in the E. J. W. Gibb memorial series a zincograph facsimile of a Turki MS., which she believes to be a direct copy from Baber's autograph (London: Quaritch). No series could be begun more auspiciously, or with a more carefully handled text. The amount of labor in the photographic reproduction has been enormous, but the result is most happy. There is an elaborate historical index on the model of that of the 'Aghani,' and an introduction abbreviated from Mrs. Beveridge's three articles in the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society. It may be doubted if there is any library in this country which specializes in Chaghatay-Turkish texts, but there are few of our large libraries which can afford to lack this basal edition of Baber's great work.

The keeper of the valuable archives at Lucca, Luigi Fumi, has been cataloguing the papers and has begun publication of the

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more important ones. His first volume gives valuable information regarding the correspondence of the little republic of Lucca from 1333 through the fourteenth century. It includes all the letters of the Anziani, who were at the head of the Government during that period. He supplies the dates from other sources, when lacking in the originals, stating from whence each was sent and its destination, points out the significance of each letter, adds an abstract of its contents, and in some cases quotes the most noteworthy passages. The letters throw light on the history not only of Lucca, but of Tuscany and all Italy, during the years embraced, but are especially valuable for the reports which the merchants of Lucca sent back from many towns in Italy and other countries of conditions which they observed, and incidentally of the relations of those places with the Government of Lucca. The work has full indexes, both chronological and alphabetical, and receives great praise from such an authority as the *Rivista d'Italia*.

The ninth volume (1905) of the *Harvard Oriental Series* contains Dr. A. W. Ryder's admirable translation of the "Mariechakatika," or "Little Clay Cart," an early Sanskrit comedy ascribed to "King Shūdraka." The translation, based on Parab's text, will naturally supersede those of Wilson and Böhtlingk. It is marked by neat metrical renderings and a partially successful effort to imitate the effect of Hindu dialect as used on the stage. No effort is made to fix the date of the author—surely a mistake. The general student, after reading the translator's careful appraisement of the drama—a good literary study—will certainly ask whether in Dr. Ryder's opinion "Shūdraka" lived before or after Kālidāsa (the author of "Shakuntalā"); but he is not even told that the author may have been Dandin instead of "King Shūdraka"; nor is it suggested that he may have lived in the sixth century A. D. In Sanskrit literature a guess is as good as a hit elsewhere, and the bare statement that we are "curiously ignorant," with a reference to a book on the drama published fifteen years ago, will scarcely satisfy any reader. One who has thoroughly worked himself into this kind of literature is just the one to express an opinion which others would be glad to hear. The fact that the comedy's author, whoever he was, ignores the canons of dramatic composition, indicates at least that he antedates them, and gives weight to the theory that we have in the "Wagonette" the earliest extant Hindu comedy.

A cordial welcome should be extended to the *Journal of the Siam Society*, the first volume of which, published at Bangkok, was issued in August of this year. The secretary, well-known to Indologists, is Dr. Frankfurter, who in this number describes the aims of the new Siam Society. Col. Gerini's article on Siamese proverbs will interest a large circle. Some of them are identical even in form with Western proverbs, as are many in thought. The writer compares a few with Sanskrit proverbs (borrowed from India), to which he might have added: "Don't despise a king, a fire, and a snake." H. R. H. Prince Damrong contributes a paper (translated by Dr. Frankfurter) on the foundation of Ayuthia, and Dr. Frankfurter gives a brief history of King Mongkut. The *Journal* may be had of Luzac in England or Harrassowitz in Germany.

A sign of the progress recently made by the study of foreign tongues in England is the launching of a new quarterly journal, the *Modern Language Review*, the first number of which appeared in October. It is edited by Prof. John G. Robertson, who may be addressed at 5 Lyon Road, Harrow. There is an Advisory Board of sixteen eminent scholars. The subscription price is eight shillings, but the periodical is sent free to members of the English Modern Language Association—just as, in this country, the *Publications* are received by members of the Modern Language Association of America. The *Review* covers a large field, being "devoted to the study of mediæval and modern literature and philology." It comprises not only original articles, but also notices of new books and a list of current publications. In this respect it differs from our *Publications* and *Modern Philology*, and resembles our *Modern Language Notes*. This feature will be useful, if competent men continue to find leisure to do the work. The first number, though not bulky, promises well for the future. In addition to some excellent book reviews and a helpful bibliography, it contains half a dozen short studies by such distinguished experts as Paget Toynbee, A. C. Bradley, and others. The new venture may be assured of a cordial welcome from colleagues across the sea.

Parts 19-28 of Meyers's Hand-Atlas (Lemcke & Buechner) bring this enterprise to a close for the edition without an index, which fills twelve parts besides. A very clear, handsome, and convenient duodecimo atlas brought up to date is thus made available for the library shelf or table. These last instalments have a large number of maps of immediate political interest, such as the double plate exhibiting southern Mantchuria and the countries adjacent to the Yellow Sea, with side maps of Liaoyang-Mukden-Harbin, showing the battle-lines; the Scandinavian sheet; Russia's Baltic Sea provinces; Hungary; Persia; Turkey in Europe, etc. For our hemisphere there are maps of South America, Mexico, and part of the United States.

The interest in the late Rear-Admiral Wharton's address at Johannesburg before the British Association, republished in the *National Geographical Magazine* for November, lies in the fact that he treats geography from the point of view of a sailor. Naturally he lays particular stress on the contributions to our knowledge of the globe through marine surveys, especially the British. There is an interesting notice of 'Explorations in Turkestan' published by the Carnegie Institution, from which it is evident that archæological excavations there will throw light on the origin of Western and Eastern civilization. Among the miscellaneous contents are extracts from President Roosevelt's addresses during his Southern tour on forest preservation and the Chinese boycott, and a summary of Prof. W. L. Fleming's investigations as to immigration to the Southern States.

The *Geographical Journal* for November opens with an entertaining description of the Nile Province in Uganda, by Lieut.-Col. Delmé-Radcliffe, its physical features and the natives. Many of these are cultivators of the land, and all, having acquired confidence in their rulers, "give the Administration no trouble." They remember Emin Pasha well, but regard him with indifference or dislike. "Sir Samuel and Lady Baker, however, seem to have inspired the natives everywhere with the greatest possible affection. They never ceased to tell us wonderful stories of the doings of 'Murrdu,' or Lion's-mane, as they called Sir Samuel, and of 'Anyadue,' or Daughter of the Moon, which is their name for Lady Baker." A brief reference is made to the canalization scheme of Sir William Garstein, which, if carried out, will not only largely increase the water supply of Egypt and improve the navigability of the Nile, but will reclaim millions of acres of good soil from the swamps. As wild cotton plants are to be found there with pods well filled with long-staple cotton, it seems highly probable that this fibre may be grown profitably and on a large scale. Other articles are on the French Antarctic expedition by its leader, Dr. Jean Charcot, in which we note the statement that polar auroras were very rare and faint.

Petermann's Mittcilungen, number nine, contains the principal facts relative to the geology, topography, and natural history of Montenegro obtained by the recent Italian mission to that country. Other subjects treated are fords, a remarkable cloudburst in the valley of the Rhine, and the best route for a railway connecting Kamtchatka with Europe. This is called out by the suggestion of the American-Pacific Railway through Alaska to Bering's Straits.

The magnificent new library building of the University of Heidelberg has just been opened; it contains some 450,000 volumes. A noteworthy innovation in this structure is the fact that none of the stories are higher than 2½ metres, so that the upper tier of books can readily be reached by anybody.

Lemcke & Buechner send us the familiar "Münchener Kalender" for 1906, with the customary colored display of arms, led off by those of Pius X. At the end is a list of such as have been reproduced since 1895, of German States, counts and princes.

A prize for the best essay on "Moral Training in Public Schools"—$500 for the best, $300 for the second best—is anonymously offered in California. The judges will be the Rev. Charles R. Brown of Oakland, President Jordan of Stanford University, and Prof. F. B. Dresslar of the University of California, Berkeley. The favored essays will be published and circulated by the trustees of the fund. They must be presented not later than June 1, 1906, must be typewritten, and contain not less than 6,000 nor more than 12,000 words.

—The following letter having appeared in the *Evening Post* of November 15, the Editor of the *Nation* must again share his surprise with his own readers, and acknowledge afresh, for himself and his posterity, that good will and esteem on the part of his colaborers which has embalmed itself in such beautiful and precious tokens:

TO THE EDITOR OF THE EVENING POST:

SIR: On the 6th of July a silver lamp of Grecian pattern was presented to Mr. W. P. Garrison in commemoration of his fortieth year of service in the editorship of the *Nation*. This was accompanied by a congratulatory address signed by many contributors to the *Nation*. Since that date many belated signatures and contributions have been received, together with expres-

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sions so cordial and enthusiastic that it seemed difficult and ungracious to return the gifts. Accordingly, Mr. Russell Sturgis, to whose taste and friendly interest the committee are much indebted, suggested the felicitous idea of adding to the lamp a silver plinth or base, which should serve at the same time as a coffer to contain the address and signatures. He furnished the design for this to Tiffanys, and the memorial token is now complete. For obvious reasons the committee think it proper to render this account to the subscribers, and at the same time to absolve themselves from further duty.

WILLIAM ROSCOE THAYER,
J. H. MCDANIELS,
Committee.

November 13, 1905.

—An *édition de luxe* of a writer of "current fiction" may be taken as a measure of his popularity, if not always of his literary importance. Maurice Hewlett has attained the distinction of such an edition (The Macmillan Co.); and, since there can be no doubt that his work deserves it, it is pleasant to know that his popularity demands it. He is a story-teller rather than a novelist, and his tales are mostly old old tales of the world's youth. When he opens the gates of an enchanted and enchanting garden, we moderns may enter in and at once fall under a spell that will last as long as he chooses to hold us. The first volume of the new edition, 'Forest Lovers,' is, we think, his earliest volume of fiction, certainly that by which he became known beyond a circumscribed scholarly circle. In the first chapter he declares his position towards the art of story-telling, a position that he has faithfully maintained: "I hope you will not ask me what it all means, or what the moral is. I rank myself with the historian in this business of tale-telling, and consider that my whole affair is to hunt the argument dispassionately. Your romancer must be neither a lover of his heroine, nor (as the fashion now sets) of his chief rascal. He must affect a genial height, that of a jigger of strings; and his attitude should be that of the Pulpiteer!—Heaven help you, gentlemen, but I know what is best for you! Leave everything to me." The second volume to reach us is his 'Richard Yea-and-Nay,' and the third, "Little Novels of Italy.' They are green and gold octavos of stately appearance.

—We had occasion last spring to notice two numbers of an interesting book by Mr. Bruce J. Home, in which, with little text and with plates of folio size, the old houses of Edinburgh were treated in a way at least partially worthy of their inherent interest. We are in receipt from the publisher, William J. Hay, of Edinburgh, of seven more parts, completing the first volume with title-page and table of contents. In this volume there are altogether twenty-seven plates, three to a part, illustrating sixteen *different subjects, either a house or a* "close"—that is, a court or narrow passageway, generally without exit. Probably the term "close" implies, in every case, a *cul-de-sac* or No Thoroughfare; but improvements continually going on have opened up the rear end of this or that closed court and made a thoroughfare, however small and humble—a wynd or throughgang, in short—of what was once a mere yard. These courts, however named, the student will look for in vain in the maps given with the guide-books, even the most expensive. They are considered private property. One of them is not more likely to be laid down upon a street-plan of Edinburgh than a front area or a back yard in a plan of New York. The reader will note in the text of Mr. Home's book that Plainstane Close, Gosford's Close, Bakehouse Close, and the rest are spoken of as if they were apart from the public ways of the town, even though separate dwellings have their entrance doors opening upon them. Accordingly, many a six-story or eight-story house is still in place, stone-built and spirited enough in its architectural character, and yet in undress, so to speak. Its front has not been treated with the ceremony commonly allowed to façades upon eighty-foot avenues, and it is just that character of large and somewhat careless design which these drawings render very perfectly. The style of the drawings themselves is also large and simple, as befits the worthy and unpretending old structure. The second volume is not yet announced, but there is reason to believe that it will follow closely upon the present one. The rapid disappearance of these precious relics of a more straightforward and self-centred art than our own is alone sufficient to warrant a completion of the work, even if it should include every fine old house in Edinburgh.

—Such a title as 'The Cathedrals of England and Wales' is hardly distinctive nowadays, nor is it perfectly descriptive, either, in the case of the book with the above title recently received from James Pott & Co. (London: T. Werner Laurie). The student who expected to find in it any historical account of the buildings and the sees would be disappointed on examination; in like manner it is a little surprising to find no plans of the buildings, either alone or with their dependent structures, and only a small photograph (or in one case three photographs) of any cathedral. The book is devoted to the vigorous expression of strong personal feelings cherished by the author, Mr. T. Francis Bumpus, who is a student of architectural art in many of its forms. He is also an enthusiastic lover of church music, and cherishes the traditions of the English foundation in these matters of stately choral service. Accordingly, the chapters of the book are taken up with comments upon restoration and—what is hardly worse—destruction in the past, and admiring comment upon work done to save what is old and fine. Sometimes he is led into very minute details, as when (p. 197) we meet this grave statement concerning Worcester Cathedral: "A pleasing change *has been made of late years in the choir* vestments of the boys, scarlet cassocks having been substituted for the black ones usually worn in our minsters." Immediately following it is this paragraph: "While the choir was in course of rearrangement, the altar, with a curious disregard for orientation, was set up at the west end of the nave, which had been temporarily fitted for service." And yet it would not be fair to the author to bid any one judge his book by these statements of minor matters—minor except to the local antiquaries—for indeed the book has all the marks of close observation and a real knowledge of what is and what is not good art and good archæology. There is an introductory sketch with four illustrations bound up in it, and this deals with the work of the men who have been most prominent in church archæology in England—Rickman, John Henry Parker, Britton the engraver, A. W. Pugin, the Rev. J. L. Petit, and others. In short, if one knows something about English architecture and the Gothic revival, he will be put upon the track of much wider knowledge, and will have his deeper sympathies stirred by this very intelligent little treatise; although certainly it is addressed in the first place to Englishmen and to Anglicans. Nine cathedrals are treated in the text; but a slip laid between the leaves announces Volume II. as intended to contain notice of nineteen cathedrals more.

—'Versailles and the Court under Louis XIV.,' by Mr. J. E. Farmer (The Century Co.), will for a good many readers answer a question which it is not unintelligent to ask. Why, it must often have been queried, did Louis XIV. leave the Louvre for Versailles? If he desired simply a sylvan retreat within the neighborhood of the capital, and a retreat where beauty of architecture could be had in conjunction with beauty of nature, why did he not betake himself, like his immediate predecessors, to Fontainebleau? Certain it is that Fontainebleau delights large numbers of the fastidious who actually revolt at the gaudy grandeur of Versailles. Louis XIV.'s great palace, however, stands for an idea, and it is the merit of Mr. Farmer's book to interpret that idea with clearness and a true sense of historical relationship. The French monarchy having, by the death of Mazarin, reached a point where absolutism could be flaunted in the face of the nation, the most ambitious and spectacular of French kings desired to possess a palace wherein he could be supreme with all the supremacy of the sun in heaven. Versailles, therefore, was created to be the *centre of a state cult, a court Zoroastrianism.* The conception may seem ignoble now, but it furnished an ideal which French society reacted to spontaneously for nearly two generations, and did not revolt against for more than a century. We lay some stress upon the idea for which Versailles stands, because it furnishes Mr. Farmer with the central and controlling motive of his book. Using Saint-Simon and the host of lesser memoir writers, the mere compiler is always able, with a minimum of effort, to turn out volume after volume upon the Court of Louis XIV. Mr. Farmer, we must be careful to state, rises above the scissors-and-paste method altogether. He does, indeed, depend upon the memoir writers very largely, but he uses them with intelligence, and makes his book a study in the physiology of court life. Beginning with the topography of the palace, which is worked out with great fulness of detail, he proceeds to the King *and the personnel of the royal circle,* and concludes with an adequate account of the occupations which filled up a normal day. Critical historians are pretty well agreed that the Versailles system of reducing the aristocracy to subjection and making the nobles a body of absentee proprietors was pernicious in the extreme. At the same time, court life, as systematized by Louis XIV., became a factor of great moment in European life, and Mr. Farmer's careful account of Versailles as a microcosm should prove both interesting and useful.

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—Within the last few years France has seen a renewal of interest in the early sixteenth century and the beginnings of the Renaissance—a field comparatively unexplored, affording an abundance of matter for the researches of ambitious students. The dominating personality in this period is, of course, Rabelais; and it is about his genial but elusive figure that investigators are most prone to hover. The new *Revue des Études Rabelaisiennes* offers tangible proof of the wealth of opportunity hitherto concealed in 'Gargantua' and 'Pantagruel.' Further substantial evidence is afforded by Louis Thuasne's recent 'Études sur Rabelais.' The head and front, however, of this fruitful revival has been Prof. Abel Lefranc, a man still young in years though ripe in scholarship, whose originality and enthusiasm have made him a prime favorite in the Parisian student world. He has just added to his already numerous studies a large and very handsome volume on 'Les Navigations de Pantagruel' (Paris: Henri Leclerc). It has previously been assumed that the voyages narrated by Rabelais were made of pure dream-stuff, crammed with grotesque and meaningless names, and directed only by the whimsical fancy of their merry author. M. Lefranc shows that this assumption is wholly groundless. The minute topographical accuracy of the French part of the story creates a presumption against chaotic geography elsewhere in the tale; and a comparison of the water routes with the maps of the day reveals a consistent plan in both voyages. Men's heads were full of distant journeys, new lands, and short cuts to India; France was doing her best to rival her maritime neighbors in acquisitions beyond the sea; and Rabelais, in this respect as in others, reflects the mood of his time. In Book II. occurs the trip to Utopia, which, mythical as its destination may be, keeps close to reality until the Red Sea is reached. Although More, from whom Rabelais borrowed Utopia, assigned it no definite place, he seems to have thought of it as lying vaguely in the vicinity of China; and thither, from the Red Sea, sails Pantagruel. Both More and Erasmus contributed largely to the ideas set forth with such eloquence in connection with this episode. The second voyage, which nearly fills Books IV. and V., has for its route nothing more nor less than the famous Northwest Passage. The itinerary can be traced as far as exploration had extended in the author's day; after that it is of necessity fantastic. Jamet, the pilot, is Jacques Cartier himself. All this is argued most convincingly, with a fulness of knowledge that disarms criticism. And even more interesting than the argument is the picture of sixteenth-century seamanship, with its wild aspirations and its amazing audacity. Sundry curious charts illustrate the text. Two drawings, one of 1545 and one of 1575, set visibly before us such ships as Rabelais knew, and the incidents of old-time whale-fishing.

AN INSTRUCTOR OF THE OLD SCHOOL.

Old Greek: A Memoir of Edward North. By S. N. D. North, LL.D. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1905.

"Old Greek" was the nickname, or, more correctly speaking, the pet name, by which Edward North, the professor of Greek, was known to the students and alumni of Hamilton College. This volume, the primary object of which is a biography of Professor North, will certainly serve as an illuminating document to explain the genesis of the old-fashioned college in the United States, and the reasons for its growth and persistence—with newer fashions to fit the times—alongside of the great universities. Dr. North himself was a type—the very best and highest type—of the class of men who gave vigor and a *raison d'être* to the small college. For more than fifty years, he was the core and heart of Hamilton College, the nucleus about which the sentiment of its alumni clustered and crystallized. "The alumnus who thinks of the college thinks first of him," says one of his eulogists; and this strong statement is entirely borne out by the facts. He took a lasting interest in each of the graduates, followed their careers with intimate sympathy, kept up a correspondence with many of them, and even addressed bulletins of college news to them in his own familiar hand. For hundreds he found positions as teachers, and took on himself all the labor and correspondence of a teachers' bureau long before that useful agency had been invented. In this way the alumni became strongly represented in the schools of New York State and elsewhere, even as far as Robert College at Constantinople, and their influence reacted in support of Hamilton College.

These intimate relations were begun, of course, in the classroom. North was the kind of teacher that inspires as well as instructs. It is plain from these pages that he had this gift in a remarkable degree. Among a class of students whose training was often crude and imperfect, he managed to create an enthusiasm for Greek studies and literature. Many years before the *Lehrplan* of 1892 was formulated in Germany, he taught Greek literature in the same liberal and enlightened way and with the same inspiring method which is aimed at in the more recent educational gymnasial programme in Prussia. Direktor Muff or Reinhardt might be amazed at some of the class mottoes which he improvised from year to year, and mystified by the Greek in which they are expressed, but they would have found Dr. North teaching Sophocles with a method as artistic and impressive as their own.

For thirty years Dr. North received an annual salary of one thousand dollars, and was therewith content. A few years after his election to its chair of languages he writes in his journal: "Twenty-eight years ago, I came into the world. Why this event happened I have long been in doubt. But the mystery is now cleared up. It was that I might be just what I am—a contented Professor of Greek and Latin—a happy husband and father." This being the case, he declined several times the offer of the presidency of his college, and in 1864 the principalship of the State Normal School at Albany, with a large increase in salary and decided prominence in educational affairs of the State. "I am held to the soil of College Hill," he says, "by as many ties as were thrown over Gulliver during his first night with the Lilliputians." These ties were strong enough to bind him for more than fifty years to the academic chair which fitted him so perfectly; in commemoration of the fiftieth anniversary of his service, the endowment of his chair was increased, the name of Edward North was attached to his professorship, and this honor was accompanied by enthusiastic addresses from the faculty and the alumni to whom he was so intimately bound.

A career such as this, Solon might have added to his list of beatitudes, while maintaining his reserves as to the happiness of Crœsus. Dr. Münsterberg not long ago suggested that the position of the American professor might be made honorable and dignified by bestowing on him a bouncing salary—something like twenty-five thousand dollars. Gilded with the halo which they love, the American people could then recognize the true worth and virtues of their intellectual saints; though even such a stipend might not be quite enough to dazzle Mr. Hyde or Mr. McCurdy. But a life like Professor North's may be a still better example to our hustling generation. It is not altogether fair to cultivate a learned proletariat, with malice prepense, for the express purpose of teaching this lesson; but it did no harm to the ideals of the Hamilton alumni to cherish the memory of an instructor who approached the standard of Plato and Socrates in the unselfishness and devotion of his service.

This volume gives, as we have said, some glimpses of the growth of a small college and the secret reasons for its survival. When Dr. Simeon North was called to the chair of ancient languages at Hamilton in 1829, the college was reduced to its lowest terms. Ten of the trustees had just resigned, there was no senior class left to be graduated, the visible college consisted of nine students and a faculty of two members. The natural course to take, under these circumstances, would have been to abandon a sinking ship which was nearly as straitened in resources and endowment as it was in officers. Dr. North did not run away, however; he remained, to become president later on, and to steer the college to a deserved prosperity. Nowadays a speedy euthanasia would seem to be the happiest solution of such a situation; the law, indeed, effects this in many States by requiring a liberal endowment. Doubtless there was a real need of Hamilton College in the wilderness, and in fact the earlier colleges sprang up where they were most needed. They were little lamps scattered in dark places, and irradiating communities which came by degrees to use their light with grateful appreciation. They fitted exactly the school system to which they were joined, as well as the demands and conditions of the life of the community. Many still survive as a hardy growth nicely adapted to their environment and constituency, and drawing sap from the constant loyalty of their alumni. The boys entered younger than at present, and were graduated at the age of twenty. They had acquired some general culture and broad points of view, and that is what President Hadley has lately affirmed to be the aim of Yale College for her students. These young men at twenty were ready for professional or technical studies, or for the shop and the office; and on the whole they were ready at exactly the right age. At nineteen or twenty a young man should know the bent of his mind, should be ripe for an introduction to business, or for the long apprenticeship to science or to a pro-

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fession. It is noticeable that all the adjustments and readjustments recently made in the universities tend to swing back toward this age limit. It is the limit at which the German gymnasia usually end their training. Some twenty years ago, it was mentioned with satisfaction in one of the Harvard annual reports that the age for admission was increasing—that the average was approaching nineteen years. But professional men noticed with alarm that their sons were graduating at twenty-three.

There is no theory on which such an age is desirable, except that the preparatory school is equivalent to the German gymnasium, and that undergraduate work is true university work. On the contrary, the very best preparatory school is not parallel to the gymnasium, and the graduate of twenty-three is only just entering the long road to science or medicine or the law. Neither in Germany nor in our own country has the young man time lying idle on deposit to honor such drafts. Thoughtful parents and professional men began to see the consequences with dismay. The next step, then, was to abridge the college course, to cut it down to three years at Harvard, to threaten two years at Columbia. But, if the college offers a highly expert training, why abridge the boon which it confers? The fact is, that the college should still form a bridge between the ordinary high schools of the country and the real university or the advanced technical school. The average high schools cannot be stretched to be gymnasia—even those which prepare for Harvard are not matches for the gymnasia, though probably it was once hoped that they might be. They are, in fact, out of relation with the general secondary-school system of the country, as President Hadley has recently pointed out. We cannot duplicate the German school system, excellent as it may be for the Germans. The place of their gymnasia is filled partly by our high schools, partly by our colleges; but our best equipped colleges add many subjects which suit perfectly our own conditions of life. Princeton and Yale still profess for undergraduates the programme of general culture which marks the scope of Amherst or Williams. The two thousand undergraduates of Harvard, with a preliminary training inferior to that of the gymnasia, enjoy practically that unfettered freedom of choice which the Germans reserve for the university alone.

The life which is pictured in this memoir had little in common with the unsentimental semi-military grind of a German gymnasium. Its freedom, in spite of occasional escapades, is certainly in harmony with the nature of American youth; its intimacy gave a charm and sentiment to the life and studies which are illustrated in this volume—at great length, it is true, yet we will not say at excessive length, for the story appeals to the pious memories of the family of Hamilton alumni. An Etonian might feel a similar sentiment for Eton, or a Balliol man for his college. A natural peril of the good and efficient small college is that it is liable to prosper and become a large college. If the roots are strong and solid, the branches are likely to spread. This fate it can hardly decline or shun—it is the usual reward of merit. Harvard has already met this doom, and has parted long since with the good fellowship of the class system. Dartmouth and, perhaps, Williams are in danger of the same overgrowth, if it may be so called. There is a real misfortune in parting with that intimacy of intercourse with students and instructors which our minor colleges fostered. At Cambridge and Oxford an ideal balance is struck between the intimacy of the college and the catholicity and breadth of the University. The student has his own little planet to dwell in, which is part of the planetary system of the University. The defect of the country college with us is a certain insularity and narrowness—a slight danger of provincialism and stagnation—which the association with a great university tends to correct. The great university, on the other hand, does not necessarily secure a wide social life and experience for the undergraduates. It may, on the contrary, precipitate the young student into little cliques and eddies, he may be isolated almost completely and revolve about his own individual axis, a solitary, unsocial atom. But the graduate from the narrower life of a small college may enlarge his horizon in the professional schools or the post-graduate work of a large university. This is now becoming the rule; it is a liberalizing influence, to be compared with the habit of migration in the German universities.

Part of a Man's Life. By Thomas Wentworth Higginson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905.

If it had been the lot of Colonel Higginson to live in the days of Cato the elder, how surely he would have been immortalized in the pages of the 'De Senectute' as a shining example of a delightful and useful old age, busily engaged in recording for posterity the garnered wisdom of more than eighty years, and abundantly supplied with physical and mental strength for his task, thanks to an earlier life intelligently and honorably self-controlled. If Colonel Higginson has never ascended the heights of purely creative literary genius, he has none the less made for himself in American letters a place of high honor and a name that will not readily be forgotten. The chapters of the present volume range over many fields: "Butterflies in Poetry" and the Negro Problem ("Intensely Human") are chapter topics objectively as widely separated as one could well imagine. But, seen through the mind of Mr. Higginson, there is a very substantial unity in the work after all, and the wording of the title—"part," rather than "parts"—need occasion no question. It is the privilege of a really capable life lived up to its opportunities to make itself a part of all that it has met, and to make all that it has met a part of itself; and the life with which we are brought into contact here has lived fairly up to its opportunities.

Two chapters stand out in bold relief for their bearing upon social, moral, and political problems of the present day—the one, just mentioned, dealing with our relations with the negro; the other, "The Cowardice of Culture," with the chronic distrust on the part of the cultured classes in the ability of the less favored to develop the fundamental qualities of good citizenship. Mr. Higginson takes radical and well-grounded issue with the theory, too prevalent even at the North, that the negro is rightly understood only by the classes to whom he was formerly in bondage. Even a recent biographer of Whittier has said, "Of the real negro, his capacities and limitations, he had, like his fellows, only a dim idea, based largely on theoretical speculation." In Whittier's case it would not be difficult to show the possession of a remarkably true insight, even at rather long range: his study of the character of John Randolph had not been that of personal contact, and yet his verses on "Randolph of Roanoke" constitute one of the most truthful and effective bits of character delineation ever compressed within the same space limits by an American writer. But, as Mr. Higginson shows, the cause of the negro against slavery did not rely upon supporters who took their evidence at second hand, or based their action on abstract speculation. Lundy, Rankin, Garrison, Birney, Channing, and the Grimkés had ample and long accumulated evidence from the sight of their own eyes to sustain on grounds of fact the theoretical opposition to which reason and moral principle had forced them. Tacitus speaks somewhere of our increased bitterness towards those for whom our enmity has no just basis. The slave himself had done no harm to those who held him, but, by the very fact of holding him thus, the owner had done himself harm irreparable and beyond description. He had placed himself athwart the track of advancing moral and industrial civilization. The incubus of the system had left him the insight to foresee the impending disaster, but not the moral energy to make the sacrifice by which alone it could be averted. Under such circumstances, condemned at the bar of civilization for holding the negro in bondage, we may allow that the holders would have been something *more* than human had they not tried to mitigate their own position by persuading themselves that the negro was something *less;* but at the same time we cannot allow ourselves to forget that such an attitude of mind inevitably unfits one to be an impartial judge of the question at issue. Mr. Higginson maintains that our troubles over the negro are to be put on the road towards removal only by full recognition of the fact that the negro, like the white man, is simply a human being, "intensely human" both in his virtues and in his sins. In his own experience at the head of negro troops in the civil war, a movement in which he was the pioneer, it never occurred to him to treat his soldiers or think of them on any other basis, and his confidence in their ordinary humanity was unswervingly justified by results. It would be of untold value to the South to-day to read and digest the calm and sane counsels of this chapter.

The chapter on the Cowardice of Culture has gained immensely in its power of suggestion since it was written, now that fear of another kind has broken away the barriers of an exclusive aristocracy, and at one stroke converted millions of the uncultured masses of Russia into effective units in the government of an empire known to possess

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latent possibilities of a wealth and power immeasurably beyond what it has yet attained, even though no slightest part of its bureaucratic dreams of external expansion should ever be realized. The faith of many will be sorely tried by the disorders sure to attend the period of readjustment, just as the faith of many Northern patriots has been tried by the mishaps of our first generation of negro citizenship. Our troubles with the negro have been born of the cowardice which would not trust him, which has given him not a genuine freedom, but a half-freedom "tempered by chain-gangs, lynching, and the lash." If we are not in a position to lend Russia the moral aid which she so sorely needs from us to-day, it is because we have let the vicissitudes of a needless war and of party politics drive us into the practical maintenance of the position that self-government is not an ultimate and beneficent principle of political philosophy, but merely a convenient instrument for use in certain high stages of civilization, best kept out of reach of the weaker races. It should be needless to call attention to the fact that, on the theory which we are to-day applying to the government of the Filipinos, the masses of Russia ought to be better governed by the bureaucracy than by themselves. It will be fortunate for the new régime if its more liberal leaders imbibe the spirit of our author rather than the practice of an administration caught in the meshes of a suicidal expediency. "I take it," Mr. Higginson says, "that there has never been a period in our history since the American nation was independent when it would not have been a calamity to have it controlled by its highly educated men alone." We have recently learned from the reminiscences of Andrew D. White what a high degree of personal culture some of the leading official spirits of reactionary Russia had developed; and yet the recent war has thrown these same officials upon the screen before the eyes of an onlooking world as examples of an almost incredible and altogether disastrous inefficiency. We get, then, from Mr. Higginson the doctrine that the cure for the troubles of democracy is more democracy.

We have taken up our space with the suggestions of these two chapters under the conviction that they convey important truth admirably adapted to present needs. Of the twelve chapters unnoticed we shall merely say that the reader will find delight and profit in them all. We congratulate the author on carrying to his eighty-second year an intellect the eye of which is not dimmed, nor its natural vigor abated.

Ipswich in the Massachusetts Bay Colony, 1633 to 1700. By Thomas Franklin Waters, President of the Ipswich Historical Society. Published by the Society. 1905. 8vo, pp. 586.

In one feature, at least, this ample and handsomely printed work surpasses any other town history that we have ever encountered. We refer to that portion of the second half which deals with "Houses and Lands," and which, with the aid of a diagram, traces the fortunes of each dwelling and lot of the original settlers *nominatim* not only to 1700, but to the present day. This enormous labor is fortified by the citation of wills and deeds, and the result is a firm base for all future researches. It is supplemented by a summary of the names of the settlers from 1633 to 1649, with the year in which each name first occurs in the town records, and by some sample inventories of personal effects. Other remarkable lists of the early inhabitants have been constructed for the chapter entitled "The Body Politic"; and show that out of an enrolled male population in 1678 totalling 508, there were 220 commoners and 125 freemen (17 of these not being commoners). The freemen alone were entitled to vote for the officers and magistrates of the Colony and to speak and vote in town meeting; the commoners might vote on all questions relating to the common lands; the residue, so-called Residents, were eligible for jury duty and to vote for selectmen.

"Probably," says Mr. Waters, "there was no nation of the Old World where the lines of division between the rich and the poor, the learned and the unlearned, the master and the servant, were drawn more sharply. The aristocracy of old Ipswich was as definite and as haughty a body, it may be, as the aristocracy of London. Nevertheless, the test of eligibility to full citizenship resided not in gentle birth, or in the possession of wealth or learning or official station, but in Christian manhood, publicly professed by union with the Christian Church. The poorest and most ignorant was not debarred from this privilege of church membership, and the right of franchise followed naturally from this."

The Saltonstalls, John Winthrop, jr., whose portrait serves for frontispiece, the Rev. Nathaniel Ward, the Rev. Nathaniel Rogers, the Rev. John Norton, Samuel Appleton, Anne Bradstreet, and Ezekiel Cheever, are the more famous names associated with the early period of Agawam, or Ipswich. Three of these were graduates of Emmanuel College, Cambridge, and the younger Richard Saltonstall, a man of great independence of mind, honored his breeding by protesting to the General Court against the importation of two kidnapped Guinea negroes in 1645, advocating imprisonment for the shipmaster and the return of the slaves at the public expense. Southerners fond of attributing to New England, along with the mother country, the imposing of the curse of slavery on their section, should take notice of this forerunner of Judge Sewall with his tract, "The Selling of Joseph." What has the South to show resembling either? Nathaniel Ward, another Emmanuel man, was the town's leading intellect, author and publicist, who in 1641 drew the first code of the colony, its "Body of Liberties," with the rights of man for its preamble, and whose 'Simple Cobbler of Agawam' (1646) is one of the New England Puritan classics. Valuable letters of Ward's are printed in an appendix.

Mr. Waters's historical treatment is episodical and is very pleasingly manifested in the opening chapters on the aborigines as described by the first Englishmen and on home and dress. These themes are invested with a really fresh interest, and set forth with noticeable literary skill. In an Indian shell-heap supposed traces of cannibalism have been found. The town checked the cutting down of trees, even on private house lots, by the most stringent regulations. Ipswich was, by reason of its river, a great fishing village, and each boat's crew was entitled to graze one cow on the common. While potatoes were not cultivated till 1733, tobacco began to be grown a hundred years before. Ezekiel Cheever, more famous as Boston's schoolmaster, was called to the head of Ipswich's grammar school (meaning then a Latin school, a feeder to Harvard College) in 1660. King Philip's war is gone into at length, and the letters of Capt. Samuel Appleton, who commanded the "confederate army" of "the United Colonies," are valuable for the light they throw on the friction resulting from this small beginning of a larger fusion. Towards Andros the town was disposed to be compliant, though it resisted his Tax Act till forced to submit. It was spared Salem's witchcraft delirium, and the victims in Ipswich were few.

Much remains to be said or sayable, but we must stay our hand. Mr. Waters's work, which we hope he will follow up for later times, as he half promises, takes its place in the front rank of its class, and can hardly be praised too highly for diligent research, candor, taste, style and construction. Except for a little wabbling in spelling the name of the historian Palfrey, the printer has performed his part very commendably.

The Political History of England. By W. Hunt and R. L. Poole. Vol. X. From the Accession of George III. to the Close of Pitt's First Administration. By W. Hunt. Longmans, Green & Co. 1905.

The example set by Lord Acton with the Cambridge Modern History has inspired a group of Oxford scholars to emulation. With the assistance of Dr. Hodgkin, Professor Adams of Yale, and Professor Pollard of London, and under the very competent joint leadership of the editor of the *English Historical Review* and of the president of the Royal Historical Society, they propose to cover the political history of England from the earliest times to the present in twelve volumes. The inherent defects of coöperative historical writing have been too frequently reiterated to require restatement here, but it may be said at once that the present undertaking is a great improvement on the Cambridge Modern History in this respect, that each volume is the work of one author instead of a patchwork of historical snippets by a number of authors. It may further be said that there is a distinct need for a comprehensive political history of England, condensing into a convenient form the results of the very active scholarship of the present day. In the accomplishment of the latter purpose, however, the general reader might well expect to find controversial questions treated in as definite and thorough a manner as possible. In the volume now published there are several questions of the sort dealt with, notably two to be hereafter mentioned. It cannot be said that the reader is left with the impression that he has been presented with a thorough and authoritative judgment in either case.

This volume, the first to appear, but the tenth in number, is by the Rev. William Hunt, and embraces the reign of George III. down to the year 1801. On the whole it may be said that the work is solidly and satisfactorily done, although a period containing two great revolutions was perhaps not that best adapted to the author's talent. Mr. Hunt is as conservative in his politics as he is in his scholar-

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ship, which, perhaps, is not an equal merit. He is far removed from Sir George Trevelyan's outlook on the question of American independence, and his hero, if he has one, is George III. There is something to be said for this position; and even for those who will not agree it may serve as a useful corrective. But, all allowance made, it is clear that Mr. Hunt lacks the breadth of vision, the catholicity of mind, without which a revolution, with its inevitable exaggerations, cannot be judged. Thus, we find him within a few pages describing Chatham's rhetoric as "sublime," and the Declaration of Independence as "crude"; the epithets might perfectly well be reversed, though with no better justification. It is the same with the French Revolution; to Mr. Hunt it is still a "by-word." The Declaration of the Rights of Man he takes pains to describe as "flatulent"; is it possible that Mr. Hunt has not read over this much and unjustly abused charter of liberty? He would be surprised to find that, making exception of a question of legal procedure specified in clause 9, it does not require a word changed to fit the political conditions that France has attained under the Third Republic. The fact is, that Mr. Hunt suffers from a constitutional incapacity which makes him unable to deal with such questions on a broad enough basis.

In other respects there is little fault to find with his work. It is packed as full of fact as his space will permit, and it is not often that his knowledge or judgment appears to err. His description of General Howe as "incompetent" is, however, not justifiable. At page 121, Lady Sarah Gordon-Lennox, whom George III. for a time wanted to marry, is described as the cousin of Charles James Fox; she was in fact his aunt. *Franciscans* (p. 35), for the believers in Sir Philip Francis as Junius, is not a commendable use of a term which is more properly associated with St. Francis and even, at a pinch, with the Hell Fire Club. On the identity of Junius, Mr. Hunt does not, as he might be expected to, give us an authoritative summing up. He dismisses the subject in a few words, and with a statement to the effect that the authorship of Sir Philip Francis is generally unquestioned. That is going too far; it was certainly not the opinion of the late Mr. Fraser Rae. Another highly controversial question is also dealt with insufficiently, that of Nelson's conduct at Naples in 1799. In this matter Mr. Hunt, with an evident desire to be fair, goes further in criticism of Nelson than most English historians, but he does not show a firm grasp of the crucial points in the evidence, and he misses Mr. Badham's works in his authorities.

On the whole, however, these are minor defects in a very useful book, in which the sense of proportion, the volume of information, and the continuity of narrative are good. Mr. Hunt shows these qualities at their best in his remarkably condensed chapter on "Social and Economic Progress."

Florence. By A. Philippi. With 170 illustrations. Translated from the German by P. G. Konody. (Famous Art Cities, No. IV.) Charles Scribner's Sons. 1905.

The modern traveller who previously prepares himself for seeing Italian cities by an attentive study of monographs and illustrated guide-books, must resign himself to eliminate surprise from his pleasurable sensations; on the other hand, he can, by knowing the architectural structure of the principal monuments, the outlines of sculpture and paintings, devote his time more efficiently to what interests him most. Philippi's 'Florence' will be found equally useful for study beforehand and for an *aide-mémoire.* Its lightness makes it especially easy to carry about.

In commendably brief space the author gives us a comprehensive survey of Florentine history, the part played by all its leading citizens both in politics, literature, and art, the origin of all its important buildings, with extensive architectural notes about them and excellent illustrations of its churches, palaces, groups of sculpture, altar-pieces, frescoes, and noteworthy details. It is in the lives of Florentine painters and the descriptions of their principal works that Philippi is least instructive. His digressions into art criticism are too palpably futile. For instance, with regard to Botticelli, although he is accorded a prominent rank among painters, we read that, while a brilliant designer, his drawing is not correct, nor his vision pictorial, nor is he a colorist. Moreover, he did not attempt to make the objects he painted appear "plastic and round," nor to make space recede, nor was he interested in the landscape behind his figures—all singular accusations, which prove that Philippi does not recognize style in drawing, or know the first principles of decorative art, nor has he observed the wonderful space and breadth in the landscape of winding-river background to "The Annunciation" in the Uffizi, which is not among his illustrations of Botticelli's works. He goes on to say: "In spite of these imperfections, he impressed his contemporaries, and has now become the pet of a public that would not think any less of him if one were to say that he was really no painter, but a draughtsman and illuminator: the more wonderful, the greater, they would say, his art." Philippi carps also at what he calls the restlessness of Botticelli—in other words, his faculty for dramatic expression. In the movement of his figures he esteems Ghirlandajo as far the greater artist and painter of the two. These individual appreciations are in no wise helpful to any one. In treating of Raphael, we are bade base our judgment of his skill as a portrait painter on his paintings of Angelo and Maddaleno Doni in the Pitti Gallery. Yet further on we are told they they are not attributed to that master.

The book suffers from being crudely translated from the German.

Essays. By Robert, Marquess of Salisbury. Vol. I., Biographical. Vol. II., Foreign Politics. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

"The essays in these volumes," says a prefatory note, "were among the articles contributed by Lord Salisbury to the *Quarterly Review* in the years 1861 to 1864, when the author was Conservative Member for Stamford, and before he had been in office." We may add a further word of explanation; in stating that, with the exception of two long articles on Stanhope's 'Pitt,' both volumes are occupied with papers on diplomatic subjects. The review of Castlereagh's career does, indeed, embrace a certain amount of biographical comment, but the author's main concern is to estimate the services of a minister who did his most important work at the Foreign Office. The other three essays deal with "Poland," "The Danish Duchies," and "Foreign Policy." Throughout, Lord Salisbury is writing as a champion of Tory principles and Tory leaders. Even his essay on "Foreign Policy" is less a statement of the leading ideas which should determine national action than a sharp criticism of Lord John Russell.

The love of sarcasm and epigram which marked Lord Salisbury's speeches, and even his State papers, is abundantly illustrated in the course of these essays. Lord Castlereagh, for example, was cold and impassive; but Salisbury could not dismiss this side of his character without bringing in a dig at the Whigs.

"He had his own notions of what good there was to be done, and what was the best way of doing it; and neither contradiction at home nor coaxing abroad ever moved him a hair's-breadth from his own particular point of view. But they were such unpoetical, unromantic notions that no one could, by any stretch of language, dignify them as 'a cause.'"

This allusion to "causes" furnishes an excellent opportunity for a side-glance at the sentimentalism of those who had learned their political alphabet in the school of Fox:

"He might have maintained his policy with impunity if in his speeches he would have done readier homage to the Liberal catch-words of the day. If he had only constructed a few brilliant periods about nationality or freedom, or given a little wordy sympathy to Greece, or Naples, or Spain, or the South American republics, the world would have heard much less of the horrors of his policy.

There are so many thrusts of this kind at political opponents that one must find in them a salient characteristic of Salisbury's literary style. On the whole, the most determined onslaught of the two volumes is the diatribe against Fox. Lord Salisbury, in casting about for reasons which will explain Pitt's long retention of power, finds the most important of all in the low character of his opponents. "There have been many statesmen with worse characters than Fox; there may have been some as pure as Pitt. But the extremes have never been contrasted with each other as they were in that generation. There never was a time when the reputation of one rival stood so high, while that of the other stood so low." The political canonization of Fox is, in Lord Salisbury's eyes, to be equalled only by the hagiological masterpieces of the *Acta Sanctorum.* "The intrigues of a restless ambition that never knew scruple or worried itself about principle, have been converted into the struggle of a second Hampden against a Court conspiracy for enslaving England. The phrases struck out in the heat of debate, or selected at random as the readiest missiles to fling at an adversary's head, have been cited as the profound maxims of a political philosopher." Lord Salisbury is willing to admit the fact of Fox's wonderful fascination, but, in praising Pitt, he uses his strongest colors to bring out the contrast between purity of conduct and gross irregularity, between the noblest patriotism and the self-seeking lit-

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tleness of party politics. Salisbury learned to be a hard hitter before ever he entered a ministry.

Of the two studies in biography, that on Castlereagh is likely to prove the more interesting and valuable. Concerning Pitt, nothing is said which has not often been said before by his fervent admirers. Castlereagh, from having had few intimate friends and no picturesque qualities, becomes in most historical works a mere lay figure without flesh-and-blood associations of any kind. Lord Salisbury, though not until forty years after his death, rendered a real service to his reputation by dwelling upon his deep sense of public duty, and interpreting his policy with sympathetic touch. For the rest, this collection of articles from the *Quarterly* is remarkable chiefly for its attack upon German policy in the Schleswig-Holstein affair and its somewhat unusual attitude toward the Polish question.

Bismarck, who was not good at forgiving old enemies unless they had come to their knees, never liked Salisbury, and even fastened upon him a highly uncomplimentary phrase. Why the Chancellor cared so little for the colleague who accompanied Disraeli to the Berlin Congress may perhaps be seen from a perusal of Salisbury's essay on the Danish Duchies. This criticism of Lord John's refusal to draw the sword was doubtless a party pamphlet, but it was something more. It would easily have been possible to castigate the Whigs without writing thus:

"The care with which the Germans have selected the weakest State upon their frontier for the exhibition of their irrepressible patriotism, shows of what metal it is made. The magnificent sentiments they are parading, the exhortations to courage, the appeal to the German honor, would be in place if they were undertaking to free Alsace from France, or Livonia from Russia. Their zeal for German nationality, if it appears to us hot, is at least invariably safe. Once convince them that the raid on Denmark is not safe, and the excitement will subside with a marvellous rapidity."

Gibes of this kind do not make for the harmony of States or the good will of individual politicians, even in days when the immediate crisis is past.

The article on "Poland" seems to us by far the most striking of the whole series, for in it Salisbury attempted a very unusual feat. With talk about the "crime" of partitioning Poland he had no patience whatever, but he did find ground to censure in the strongest terms the misgovernment of Poland by the Russians; 1815 and not 1773 is for him the critical date in Polish annals. "As a nation the Poles had fallen by the justest retribution that was ever meted out to a foreign policy of incessant aggression, and an oppressive and barbarous domestic rule. But they had not lost their rights as men. They had a right to good government, and, at least, to some portion of the freedom they had lost." In other words, Salisbury found an opportunity for denouncing Russia without uttering a syllable in praise of the ancient Polish polity which had perished during the period of the Partition treaties. The least sentimental of all men and a lover of paradox, this method of approaching the Polish question must have given him distinct intellectual amusement.

Regarded merely as historical studies, the contributions which Lord Salisbury made to the *Quarterly Review* are not important. They attest a considerable range of reading in political history, but most of the facts employed seem to have been swept together for the occasion, while the spirit of the true historian is abundantly wanting. Thanks, however, to their trenchant style and their author's subsequent part in foreign politics, they are worth reprinting.

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Braguon, Ollie Hurd. Pup: The Autobiography of a Greyhound. Boston: H. M. Caldwell Co. 1.50.
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Clifford, Mollie Lee. Yoppy: The Autobiography of a Monkey. Boston: H. M. Caldwell Co. 1.50.
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Colonial Society of Massachusetts. Publications of the. Vol. II. Boston: Published by the Society.
Crane, Edward A. Memoirs of Dr. Thomas W. Evans. Appleton. $3 net.
Crothers, Samuel McChord. The Pardoner's Wallet. $1.25 net. The Endless Life. 75 cents net. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Dodge, Henry Nehemiah. Christus Victor. Putnams. $1.25.
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Ellis, Edward S. Deerfoot in the Mountains. Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Co. $1.
Evans, Anna D. It Beats the Shakers. Everett & Francis. $1.
Fall, Frank Andrews. Blazed Trails. Grannis Press.
Fleming, Walter L. Civil War and Reconstruction in Alabama. Macmillan Co. $5 net.
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